LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.



COMPILED AND EDITED BY

G. A. GRIERSON, C.I.E., Pa.D., D.Litt., I.C.S.



VOL. III.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

PART III.

SPECIMENS OF THE

KUKI-CHIN AND BURMA GROUPS.

LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

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25

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Vol. I. Introductory.

,,

- .. II. Mon-Khmer and Tai families.
- .. III. Part I. Tibeto-Burman languages of Tibet and North Assam.
 - " II. Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
 - " III. Kuki-Chin and Burma groups of the Tibeto-Burman languages.
 - IV. Dravido-Munda languages.
 - V. Indo-Aryan languages, Eastern group.
 - Part I. Bengali and Assamese.
 - " II. Bihārī and Oriyā.
- ,, VI. Indo-Aryan languages, Mediate group (Eastern Hindi).
- VII. Indo-Aryan languages, Southern group (Marāṭhī).
- " VIII. Indo-Aryan languages, North-Western group (Sindhī, Lahndā, Kashmīrī, and the 'Non-Sanskritic' languages).
 - IX. Indo-Aryan languages, Central group.
 - Part I. Western Hindī and Panjābī.
 - " II. Rājasthānī and Gujarātī.
 - , III. Himalayan languages.
- . X. Eranian family.
- .. XI. "Gipsy" languages and supplement.



LINGUISTIC SURVEY OF INDIA.

SYSTEM OF TRANSLITERATION ADOPTED.

A.—For the Dēva-nāgarī alphabet, and others related to it—

श्रा $ar{a}$, इi, $\S i$, उu, प e, ए ē, ऐ ai, ऋो o, ज u, ऋ ri, क chha ज ja भा jha जña च cha an ka ग व्रव ह dha त ta य tha ϵda ध dha न na na na Z ta ठ tha ड da स bha ल laa va or wa य ya ₹ ra फ pha ब ba $\mathbf{H} ma$ प pa ढ rha \mathbf{z}_{l} æ lha. च ha ड ?a ष sha स इव N śa

Visarga (:) is represented by h, thus क्रमग: kramaśah. Anuswāra (') is represented by m, thus सिंह simh, वंग vamś. In Bengali and some other languages it is pronounced ng, and is then written ng.; thus राष्ट्र bangśa. Anunāsika or Chandra-bindu is represented by the sign over the letter nasalized, thus में mē.

B.—For the Arabic alphabet, as adapted to Hindustani—

Tanwīn is represented by n, thus غُرِزُ fauran. Alif-i maqsūra is represented by ā;— thus, دَعُونِ da'wā.

In the Arabic character, a final silent h is not transliterated,—thus banda. When pronounced, it is written,—thus, banda.

Vowels when not pronounced at the end of a word, are not written in transliteration. Thus, बन ban, not bana. When not pronounced in the middle of a word or only slightly pronounced in the middle or at the end of a word, they are written in small characters above the line. Thus (Hindī) हेखता dēkhtā, pronounced dēkhtā; (Kāś-

mīrī) चूह के teh; कार्ज है kar", pronounced kor; (Bihārī) देखा dēkhath.

- C.—Special letters peculiar to special languages will be dealt with under the head of the languages concerned. In the meantime the following more important instances may be noted:—
 - (a) The ts sound found in Marāṭhī (ব), Puṣḥṭō (২), Kāśmīrī (ৣ, ব), Tibetan (ঠ), and elsewhere, is represented by <u>ts</u>. So, the aspirate of that sound is represented by <u>ts</u>.
 - (b) The dz sound found in Marāṭhī (෧), Puṣḥṭō (෫), and Tibetan (੬) is represented by dz, and its aspirate by dzh.
 - (c) Kāśmīrī ্ (জ্) is represented by ñ.
 - (d) Sindhī في, Western Panjābī (and elsewhere on the N.-W. Frontier) بنة, and Pushtō بنة are represented by n.
 - (e) The following are letters peculiar to Puṣḥtō:—

 \$\tip t; \times ts \text{ or } \dz\$, according to pronunciation; \$\dagger d; \chi_r; \chi_t t \text{ or } g\$, according to pronunciation; \$\dagger d; \chi_r; \chi_t t \text{ or } g\$, according to pronunciation; \$\dagger i\$ or \$\delta h\$, according to pronunciation; \$\dagger i\$ or \$\delta h\$.
- D.—Certain sounds, which are not provided for above, occur in transcribing languages which have no alphabet, or in writing phonetically (as distinct from transliterating) languages (such as Bengali) whose spelling does not represent the spoken sounds. The principal of these are the following:—
 - \vec{a} , represents the sound of the a in all.
 - a, , , , a in hat.
 e, , , e in met.
 o, , , o in hot.
 e, , , é in the French était.
 o, , , , o in the first o in promote.
 - ö. " ö in the German schön.
 - ü, " " ü in the " mühe.
 - th, , , th in think.
 - dh, , , th in this.

The semi-consonants peculiar to the Munda languages are indicated by an apostrophe. Thus k', t', p', and so on.

E.—When it is necessary to mark an accented syllable, the acute accent is used. Thus in (Khōwār) ássistai, he was, the acute accent shows that the accent falls on the first, and not, as might be expected, on the second syllable.

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KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The territory inhabited by the Kuki-Chin tribes extends from the Nága Hills in the Geographical distribution.

Geographical distribution.

north down into the Sandoway District of Burma in the south; from the Myittha river in the east, almost to the Bay of Bengal in the west. It is almost entirely filled up by hills and mountain ridges, separated by deep valleys.

A great chain of mountains suddenly rises from the plains of Eastern Bengal, about

220 miles north of Calcutta, and stretches eastward in a broadening mass of spurs and ridges, called successively the Garo, Khasia, and Nága Hills. The elevation of the highest points increases towards the east, from about 3,000 feet in the Garo Hills to 8,000 and 9,000 in the region of Manipur.

This chain merges, in the east, into the spurs which the Himalayas shoot out from the north of Assam towards the south. From here a great mass of mountain ridges starts southwards, enclosing the alluvial valley of Manipur, and thence spreads out westwards to the south of Sylhet. It then runs almost due north and south, with cross-ridges of smaller elevation, through the districts known as the Chin Hills, the Lushai Hills, Hill Tipperah, and the Chittagong Hill tracts. Farther south the mountainous region continues, through the Arakan Hill tracts, and the Arakan Yoma, until it finally sinks into the sea at Cape Negrais, the total length of the range being some seven hundred miles.

The greatest elevation is found to the north of Manipur. Thence it gradually diminishes towards the south. Where the ridge enters the north of Arakan it again rises, with summits upwards of 8,000 feet high, and here a mass of spurs is thrown off in all directions. Towards the south the western off-shoots diminish in length, leaving a track of alluvial land between them and the sea, while in the north the eastern off-shoots of the Arakan Yoma run down to the banks of the Irawaddy.

This vast mountainous region, from the Jaintia and Nága Hills in the north, is the home of the Kuki-Chin tribes. We find them, besides, in the valley of Manipur, and, in small settlements, in the Cachar Plains and Sylhet.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

Two main divisions.

Two avoid confusion, retained the old terminology.

The Kuki-Chin Group.

The Kuki-Chin G

The words 'Kuki' and 'Chin.' The words Kuki and Chin are synonymous and are both used for many of the hill tribes in question.

Kuki is an Assamese or Bengali term, applied to various hill tribes, such as the Lushēis, Rāngkhōls, Thādos, etc. It seems to have been known at a comparatively early period. In the Rāj Mālā, Śiva is stated to have fallen in love with a Kuki woman, and the Kukis are mentioned in connection with the Tipperah Raja Chachag, who flourished about 1512 A.D.

Bētē, Aimol, Hallām, and others.

The word Kuki is, more especially, used to denote the various tribes which have successively been driven from the Lushai and Chin Hills into the surrounding country to the north and west. The tribes which first emigrated from Lushai land into Cachar, the Rāngkhōls and Bētēs with their off-shoots, are generally distinguished as Old Kuki; while it has become customary to use the term New Kuki to denote the Thādos, Jangshēns, and their off-shoots. These latter tribes had driven the so-called Old Kukis out of Lushai land, and were afterwards themselves driven out by the Lushēis.

The terms Old Kuki and New Kuki are apt to convey the idea that the tribes so denoted are closely related to each other. But that is not the case. Not only do their customs and institutions differ considerably, but their languages are separated by a large group of dialects in the Lushai and Chin Hills. The so-called New Kukis are, so far as we can see, a Chin tribe, most closely related to the inhabitants of the Northern Chin Hills, while the Old Kukis are related to tribes more to the south. I have therefore abandoned the use of the title New Kuki, but have retained the name Old Kuki for want of a better word to denote a language which we know in many dialects, such as Rāngkhōl,

Chin is a Burmese word used to denote the various hill tribes living in the country between Burma and the Provinces of Assam and Bengal. It is written and dialectically pronounced Khyang. The name is not used by the tribes themselves, who use titles such as Zo or Yo and Shö.

McRae records a tradition among the 'Kukis,' according to which they and the

Maghs are descended from two brothers, the younger being the
progenitor of the Kukis. There can, of course, be attributed
little or no importance to this tradition; but this much is certain, that the Kuki-Chin languages belong to the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman family.

The history of the Kuki-Chin tribes is only known from comparatively modern times.

With the exception of the Meitheis, who have been settled in the Manipur valley for more than a thousand years, all the Kuki-Chin tribes appear to have lived in a nomadic state for some centuries. It would seem that they all settled in the Lushai and Chin Hills some time during the last two centuries, and this country may be considered as the place where their languages have developed their chief characteristics.

Their total number may be estimated at between 600,000 and 1,000,000. There are, however, no reliable statistics available, most of the local returns being mere estimates. The total 600,000 is based on the information collected for the Linguistic Survey.

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II.	Chin languages :-										00	0.45
	1. Northern Group						•	•	•	•	. 60,	345
	a. Thādo							31,4				
	b. Soktē			•	•			9,0	005			
	c. Siyin							1,7	770			
	d. Rāltē							18,1	133			
	e. Paitē							1	?			
								60,	345			
		332	•	Car	ried ov	er		-			300,	982

INTRODUCTION.

								D	1.0		000000
0	C1-1-C							Broug	ht forward	•	300,982
2	. Central Group	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	·•	•	107,604
	a. Tashon	•	•	•		•	•		39,215		
	b. Lai .	•	•	•	•				22,450		
	c. Lakher	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,100		
	d. Lushēi	•	•	•	•	•	•		40,539		
	e. Banjōgi				•		•		500		
	f. Pānkhū	٠	•	•	•	•			800		
			55						107,604		
3.	Old Kuki		•								48,814
	a. Rängkhöl			•					7,820		
	 Bētē 								630		
	c. Hallām								26,848		
	d. Langrong								6,266 (?)		
	c. Aimol								750 (?)		
	f. Anäl .								750 (?)		
	g. Chiru								750 (?)		
	h. Hiroi-Lam	gång							750 (?)		
	i. Kolrēn								750 (?)		
	j. Kōm								750 (?)		
	k. Pūrūm								750 (?)		
	l. Mhār								2,000		
	m. Châ								?		
	10								48,814		
									40,814		•
4.	Southern Group		•	•	•						110,225
	Chinmē			•					P		
	Welaung	•							. 5		
	Chinbōk								5		
	Yindu						•.		?		
	Chinbon								?		
	Khyang or	Shö							95,599		
	Khami								14,626		
									110,225		
							Gran	nd Tota	al, at least		567,625

In the preceding list I have not included southern tribes, such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That, concerning which no information has been available.

The Kuki-Chin languages belong to the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman Connection with Burmese family. A comparison of the Kuki-Chin numerals with those and Tibetan. Numerals. occurring in Burmese and Tibetan will show this. The five first numerals in Burmese and Tibetan will be seen from the table below, where the written forms precede the spoken ones. The corresponding forms in Lushēi, the best-known Kuki-Chin language, have been added in a fifth column.

					BURY	MESE.					Тв	ETAN.			Lushēi.
-			Write	ten.		Spo	ken.		Wri	tten.		Spe	oken.		Dustici
One Two	:	•	Tach, ta Nhach	:	:	Tit, ta Nhit	:		Dchig Dñis	:	:	Chig Ñi .	:		Khat. Nhih. Thum.
Three		•	Thum	•		Thun	٠.	•	Dsum		•	Sum	•	•	Li.
Four		•	Le .	٠	•	Le .	•	•	Bzi .	•		Zi .	•	•	
Five			Ngā			Ngā			Lnga			Nga		•	Nga.

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Errata.

The numeral for 'one' has the form khat in the Kuki-Chin languages and some Nāgā languages. Compare also Lepcha $k\bar{a}t$. Other forms occur in Meithei and in the southern dialects.

Lushēi *nhih*, two, very closely corresponds to the spoken Burmese form. Ngentē, a Lushēi dialect, has preserved the form *nhit*, but the final consonant has been dropped in most Kuki-Chin dialects. It seems to be a rule in these languages that final consonants are often only formed in the mouth, and suppressed in the pronunciation, the result being an abrupt shortening of the sound.¹ This abrupt tone is indicated in Lushēi by writing a silent h. The spelling *nhih*, which I have found in Lushēi, Mhār, and Zahao, therefore represents a pronunciation of the word *nhi* which exactly corresponds to that indicated by the Burmese 'ok-mrats,' the accent of abbreviated words. The forms *nhit* in Burmese and *nhih* in Lushēi are therefore identical.

The numerals three, four and five show the same correspondence between Burmese and the Kuki-Chin languages. In the formation of the higher numbers the Kuki-Chin languages have developed a principle differing from that prevailing in Burmese and Tibetan. While these latter languages express the higher tens by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten,' as in 'three tens,' 'four tens,' etc., the Kuki-Chin languages, as a rule, suffix the multiplier, and their higher numbers are formed after the pattern 'tens-three,' 'tens-four,' and so on. Meithei and Khyang, however, agree with Burmese and Tibetan.

With regard to the personal pronouns, it is worth noting that the usual pronoun of the second person in the Kuki-Chin languages, as also in Bodo, Eastern Nāgā, and Kachin is nang. This form is used in Burmese in addressing children and inferiors, but seems to be unknown in Tibetan.

The comparison of the numerals shows that the Kuki-Chin languages are closer akin to spoken than to written Burmese. This also proves to be the case in other respects. Thus we find the same law prevailing in spoken Burmese and in Meithei, according to which initial hard and soft consonants are interchanged in such a way that the soft consonants are used after prefixed words ending in vowels and nasals, and the hard ones after consonants. To take one instance from Meithei, the suffix usually added to adjectives, relative participles, etc., is $p\bar{a}$ or $b\bar{a}$; thus, $pha-b\bar{a}$, good; $a-w\bar{a}ng-b\bar{a}$, high; $a-r\bar{a}p-p\bar{a}$, far.

We do not find this law in force in the other languages of the group, but the difference between hard and soft consonants is apparently but little marked in any of them, and there are numerous instances of interchange. At all events, the old initials, which are still soft consonants in Tibetan, have, broadly speaking, become hardened in all Kuki-Chin languages, just as is the case in Burmese.

Some of the changes in the consonants which distinguish spoken Burmese from the written language are found to have taken place in many Kuki-Chin languages. Final m in Burmese is, in most cases, pronounced n or ng. Im, house, is, for instance, pronounced eing. The corresponding word in most Kuki-Chin dialects is in. In Khyang and Khami both im and in occur, while Meithei has in and an older form yum (compare Tibetan khyim).

Final ang in Burmese is often pronounced in; thus, nhang, pronounced nhin, with. The same change seems to be traceable in some Kuki-Chin dialects. Final ng is, in most

¹ Compare the so-called semi-consonants in the Muṇḍā languages.

of them, interchangeable with n, and the Burmese nhin, with, is clearly identical with Mhār nhin, and Lushēi and Zahao $nhen-\bar{a}$ used in the same sense. Other dialects, such as Hallām, Langrong, Kōm, etc., have forms with ng; thus, Hallām and Langrong $neng-\bar{a}$; Kōm $nheng-\bar{a}$, to.

Burmese rh is pronounced sh. Thus, rhi, to be, pronounced shi. In several dialects, such as Lai, Zahao, Banjōgī, Shö, etc., we find a verb substantive shi, which is clearly identical.

There are also several points of analogy between Burmese and the Kuki-Chin lan-Formation and inflection of guages in the formation and inflection of words, and a few cases may be mentioned.

The prefix a, which is used in Burmese and Kachin in order to form adjectives and verbal nouns, seems to be found also in the Kuki-Chin languages. Thus, Lai $a-k\bar{u}$, cough; a-lang, shining; Lushëi \bar{a} -thim, darkness; \bar{a} -v \bar{a} r, whiteness; Shö \bar{a} -ng \bar{a} , a servant; \bar{a} -l \bar{o} , the coming, etc. It is, however, in most cases impossible to distinguish between this prefix and the possessive pronoun of the third person which has the same form.

When an adjective precedes or follows a noun in Burmese, the two words form a compound to which postpositions and suffixes are added. The same is the case in the Kuki-Chin languages, and, indeed, in most Tibeto-Burman languages.

The Burmese future suffix an is the same as the ang found in Lushēi, and as similar suffixes in other connected dialects. Thus Lushēi ka-vēl-ang, I shall strike. Another future suffix in Burmese, mañ, pronounced mi, also occurs in Khami.

The Burmese future is, in common conversation, often used as an imperative; and the two tenses are constantly confounded in the Kuki-Chin dialects.

The prefixed negatives m and n in Khyang are perhaps borrowed from the Burmese. But it is more probable that they are traces of the original free order of words which once prevailed in the Tibeto-Burman languages. Compare below.

The usual tense-suffixes and assertive-suffixes in Burmese are often dispensed with in the negative form. The same is also the case in Shö.

A very common idiom in many Kuki-Chin languages is to express purpose by means of a future or an imperative, followed by a participle meaning 'saying.' Thus we find expressions such as 'house into enter saying he would not,' i.e., 'he would not enter into the house'; 'my stomach I fill will saying he wished,' i.e., 'he wished to fill his stomach'; 'pigs tend saying he sent him,' i.e., 'he sent him to tend pigs,' and many others. The same idiom is found in Burmese; thus, ta-yā tsit-mi hū-yue, 'cause decide will saying,' i.e., 'in order to have the cause decided'; pyau-mī lā-pī, speak will comes, he comes in order to speak, etc.

Such points of analogy become more important when we remember that they are met with in languages where the inflection of nouns and verbs is not fixed in the same way as in the Indo-European languages.

Our information with regard to tones in the Kuki-Chin languages is very defective.

Shö is said to possess three tones—the short acute, the heavy grave, and the rising tones; two tones, the light and heavy one, are mentioned in Khami; and the abrupt shortening of a syllable in Lushēi seems to indicate the existence of the short abrupt tone in that language. The description of the tones in Shö seems to agree with the tones of Burmese, which latter have not,

however, as yet been adequately described; but so far as our information goes, the tones seem to be the same in Burmese and in Kuki-Chin.

These facts point to the conclusion that the Kuki-Chin languages are derived from a language connected with Burmese. It will also be seen that Meithei in some respects agrees with written Burmese, as against the other languages of the group.

The Kuki-Chin languages are not, however, simply Burmese dialects. The language from which they are descended must, in many details, have had a more antique form than Burmese, and sometimes agreed with Tibetan. This latter language has a suffix pa, usually described as an article, which is employed in a very wide way in the formation of nouns and participles. This pa is identical with the suffix $p\bar{a}$ which forms nouns of agency and relative participles in Lai, Siyin, Thādo, Kōm, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, etc. It is used in a still wider way in Meithei, where it has almost all the functions of the corresponding Tibetan suffix.

The Tibetan prefix r must be compared with er and ir in Rāngkhōl er-ming, name; ir-bun, to put on, etc.

The genitive suffix ki in Meithei is the same as the Tibetan kyi. Sho kheo is perhaps also connected. It is probable that the Burmese in or i is originally the same suffix. Both seem to be derived from a demonstrative pronoun. Compare the corresponding use of the pronoun \bar{a} , that, he, as a genitive suffix in many Kuki-Chin languages.

The particle of comparison in Western Tibetan is sang, and seems to be identical with the corresponding participle sang in Thado and Siyin.

A suffix la is often used in Tibetan in order to form a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two connected imperatives. Thus, long-la-song, rising go, rise and go. We find the same suffix used in the same way in many Kuki-Chin dialects, such as Lushēi, Rāltē, Paitē, Mhār, Hallām, Aimol, Kōm, Kolrēn, etc. Thus, Lushēi dar-a kal-u-la(ng) ar lei-roh-u, bazaar-to going fowl buy, i.e., go to the bazaar and buy fowls; Hallām sem-i-la na-pe-ra, dividing thou-give, divide and give.

Compare also the suffixes of the past tense, Tibetan song, Lai sang.

The Kuki-Chin languages must therefore be classed as intermediate between Final result of this portion of the inquiry.

Burmese and Tibetan, though much more closely connected with the former than with the latter.

With regard to the relation of the Kuki-Chin languages, especially Meithei, to the Connection with Bodo and Nāgā groups, Mr. A. W. Davis, I.C.S., has collected much useful material which has been printed in the Assam Census Report of 1891. It appears from the comparative list of words compiled by him that all these languages, to a great extent, agree in vocabulary and structure. We shall, in this place, only draw attention to a few points.

With regard to the Bodo group it is of interest to note that the repetition of the personal pronoun before a governing noun by means of a possessive pronoun, which is so common in the Kuki-Chin languages, is fully developed in Bârâ. Thus, āng-ni ā-fā, me-of my-father; nang-ni na-fā, thy-father; bī-ni bi-fā, his father, correspond to forms such as kei-ma ka-pa, me-of my-father in Lushēi and all other connected dialects. It is interesting that the Bârâ forms nang, thou, and na, thy, are the usual forms in the Kuki-Chin group.

The suffix u in the present tense in Bârâ is probably identical with the suffix of the present tense u or \ddot{u} in Shö. Compare also Tibetan o; \ddot{A} hom and Khāmtī (Tai languages) \ddot{u} .

The future suffixes gan in Bârâ and gen in Gārō seem to be identical with gan

in Meithei.

The suffix of the infinitive is $n\bar{a}$ in Gārō, and also in Thādo, Hallām, Aimol, Langrong, Pānkhū, etc. We need not, however, go into details. The close relation existing between the Bodo and the Kuki-Chin languages has never been doubted.

The Nāgā languages are also nearly connected with the Kuki Chin group. We shall only mention a few points.

The feminine suffix $p\bar{u}i$, which occurs in many Kuki-Chin languages, especially in the Central Chin sub-group and in Old Kuki, is also found in Empêo, Khoirão, Maring, and others. Thus, Empéo $em-b\bar{u}i$, a Nāgā woman; $en-r\bar{u}i-p\bar{u}i$, a hen. $\bar{A}-p\bar{u}i$ means 'mother' in Empéo and the connected dialects, and the use of this suffix is therefore quite parallel to the use of the word $n\bar{u}$, mother, as a female suffix in some Kuki-Chin forms of speech.

The word tam, many, is used as a kind of plural suffix in Thādo, Lai, Banjōgī, and most Old Kuki dialects. It should be compared with the plural suffixes tam in Ao, and ā-tum in Mikir. Compare also Tibetan tham-pa, complete, full; thams-chad, whole, all.

The suffix \bar{e} which is often added to the root in the present and past times in Lushēi, Lai, Zahao, Anāl, Kōm, Thādo, Meithei, etc., is identical with the verbal suffix e in Sopvoma, Kabui, and Khoirāo, and $w\bar{e}$ in Angāmi and elsewhere. Thus, Angāmi \bar{a} $pu-w\bar{e}$, I speak; \bar{a} $ngu-w\bar{e}$, I saw, are parallel to Lushēi, ka ti-e, I say; ka-mhu-e, I saw.

The suffix of the negative imperative is shu in Lushēi and hi in Siyin and Thādo. Compare Angāmi sho and $h\bar{e}$, Empēo sho.

The negative particles mo and lho in Angāmi and Semā, ma in Ao, $m\bar{a}$, mak in Empēo, Namsangiā, Kabui, Khoirāo, etc., are evidently the same, respectively, as the mak and $m\bar{a}$ in the Old Kuki dialects and the lo in the Central Chin languages.

The interrogative particle is mo in most Kuki-Chin languages. Compare Angāmi ma, Mikir $m\bar{a}$. Other points of resemblance will be mentioned further on, and their number could easily be increased.

The Kuki-Chin languages are also closely related to the Kachin group. This is especially so with regard to Meithei, and the question will therefore be taken up later on, in connection with that language. We may, however, here anticipate the result, and define the position of the Kuki Chin group within the Tibeto-Burman family as follows:—

The Kuki-Chin languages are closely connected with all the surrounding groups of the Tibeto-Burman family, the Bodo and Nāgā languages to the north, Kachin to the east, and Burmese to the east and south. More particularly, they form a link which connects Burmese with the Bodo and Nāgā languages, having, especially in the north, many relations with the Kachin dialects, which, in their turn, form another chain between Tibetan and Burmese.

Internal grouping of the Kuki-Chin languages must be subdivided in two kuki-Chin languages. The Kuki-Chin languages proper.

I. MEITHEI.

Meithei is the chief language of the Manipur valley, and has apparently had a long and independent development. The Manipuris are mentioned in the Shān chronicles so early as 777 A.D. Probably owing to the fact that it has developed into a literary language, their form of speech gives the impression of possessing a peculiarly archaic character. Although they have become thoroughly subjected to Hinduism, they have not adopted any Aryan tongue; Meithei is the official language of the State which all other tribes have to use in their dealings with the rulers. Our information regarding it is not very satisfactory. We do not know the dialects, and even the literary language, which is based on the dialect of Imphal, has not been fully dealt with. It is very probable that a closer examination will show that the apparent gulf between Meithei and the other Kuki-Chin languages is filled up by intermediate dialects. But this much seems certain, that Meithei has preserved some traces of a more ancient stage of phonetical development. It sometimes agrees more closely with Burmese, and even with Tibetan, than with the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

II. THE KUKI-CHIN LANGUAGES PROPER.

All the other dialects of the group in question are evidently derived from one form of speech, which might be styled the Old Chin language, its home being probably the Chin and Lushai Hills. The dialects derived from this original language can be divided into the following sub-groups:—

Northern Chin, comprising Thado (with Jangshen and several sub-dialects), Sokte,
 Northern Chin,
 Siyin, Ralte, and Paite. Ralte and Paite form the link connecting the northern and the central Chin languages.

The usual plural suffixes are tē and ho, both also occurring in Lushēi.

The plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ho or u; thus, Thādo kei-ho, Siyin $k\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$ (i.e., probably ka-u- $m\bar{a}$), Rāltē and Paitē ka-u, we.

The interrogative pronouns seem to be koi, who? and i or bang, what? Thādo has koi, who? and i, what? Siyin \bar{a} - $k\bar{o}$, who? \bar{a} -kwi and \bar{a} -bang, what? Rāltē ku, who? and i, what? Paitē kua, who? and bang, what?

The particle of comparison is sang. There are no instances in the Ralte and Paite specimens.

The suffix of the imperative is o. Another suffix seems to be in or $t\bar{a}n$, the latter consisting of two suffixes $t\bar{a}$ and in. I have found this suffix in Thado, Siyin, and Paitē.

A causative is formed by suffixing $s\bar{a}$ in Thado and shak in Paitē. Rāltē suffixes tik. Thado also forms causatives by adding $p\bar{e}$, to give, and a causative prefix ta occurs in Raltē and Paitē.

There are apparently many negative particles. Thado has lo and poi; Siyin bo, bwe, ngōl, āul; Rāltē o; and Paitē lo and kei.

2. Central Chin, comprising Zahao (Tashōn), Lushēi (including Ngentē), Lai Central Chin. (including Tlantlang, Lakher, etc.), Banjōgī, and Pānkhū.

There is no suffix of the plural of substantives common to all these dialects, but the plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ni.

The interrogative pronouns have different forms. Lushēi has tu, khoi, who? eng and zeng, what? Zahao, shi, who? and ziang, what? Lai, a-ho, koi, who? and $z\bar{e}$, what? Banjōgī, $\bar{a}o$ - $ts\bar{a}$, who? and zei, what? Pānkhū, $t\bar{u}$, who? and i, what?

The particle of comparison is nhēk-in or nhēk-ā, with many orthographic varieties.

The suffix of the imperative is o in Zahao, Lai, and Banjōgī, and ro in Lushēi, Banjōgī, and Pānkhū. Several other suffixes are used in Lai.

The causative is formed by adding tir. Banjōgī, however, seems to use $p\bar{u}i$ instead. $P\bar{u}i$ also occurs in Pānkhū. That dialect also possesses a transitive prefix $m\bar{a}$; compare Old Kuki.

The negative particle is lo.

3. Old Kuki, comprising Rāngkhōl, Bētē, Hallām, Langrong, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, Kōm, Châ, Mhār, Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgāng, and Pūrūm. All these are mere dialects of one language, which may be called by the customary name of Old Kuki. It is closely related to the Central Chin languages. Châ, in the south, is not sufficiently known, but there seems to be no doubt about its classification. Anāl and Hiroi-Lamgāng are largely influenced by Meithei. The same is the case, though not to the same extent, with Pūrūm.

Kôm, Anāl, and Hiroi-Lamgāng show a closer connection with the Nāgā languages than the other dialects of the Kuki-Chin group.

The original Old Kuki tribe seem to have lived in the Lushai Hills, from whence they were driven out by the Thādos. The Mhārs were apparently left behind, or have subsequently re-immigrated from Manipur, and this dialect has been much influenced by Lushēi. It forms a link between the central group and Old Kuki.

The usual plural suffix is ngai or hai, probably meaning 'many.' The same suffix is also used in other dialects, such as Ngentë, Banjögi, and Pānkhū. I have not found it in the Hiroi-Lamgang specimens.

The plural of the personal pronouns is formed by adding ni. Anāl and Hiroi-Lamgāng use hing and in, and no form occurs in the Mhār specimens.

The particle of comparison is *nhēk-in* or *nhēk-ā* as in the central group. Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgāng, and Pūrūm differ, and there are no instances available for Mhār and Châ.

The past tense is often formed by adding the verb joi, to complete, to finish. Pūrūm, and apparently also Hiroi-Lamgāng, use yaū, which form occurs as jou and yo in Thādo and Siyin. Compare Khāmtī (a Tai language) and Chinese yau.

The usual suffix of the imperative is ro. Anal, Hiroi-Lamgang, and Pūrūm, however, have different forms.

The causative is formed by prefixing ma, man, or min in Hallām, Aimol, Chiru, Kolrēn, and Kōm. Compare the corresponding prefix $m\bar{o}$ in Sopvoma. Other causatives are formed by suffixing $p\bar{e}k$, to give (Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Pūrūm); $p\bar{u}i$ or $p\bar{u}$, to assist (Hallām, Kōm); and tir, to send, to enable (Langrong and Mhār).

The most characteristic feature of Old Kuki is the negative particle $m\bar{a}k$ or $m\bar{a}$, which also occurs in the forms $m\bar{a}ing$ and $m\bar{a}\bar{u}ng$. It does not occur in Mhār. Another characteristic negative is no in Rāngkhōl, Langrong, Aimol, Pūrūm, and Mhār. The negative lo occurs in Mhār; loi in Rāngkhōl; and lai in Langrong. Compare the negative particle in the central group.

4. Southern Chin, comprising Chinme, Welaung, Chinbok, Yindu, Chinbon, Khyang
or Sho, Khami, and probably several tribes in Burma,
such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That. Some of

the tribes known as Taung-tha, that is, 'sons of the hills,' probably belong to this group.

Our information about these dialects is very limited, Khyang and Khami being the only ones which have been satisfactorily dealt with. Both comprise several dialects. Chinmē is said to be a link between Chinbōk and Lai, and the same must be said with regard to a Taung-tha dialect, in which a vocabulary has been published in the Upper Burma Gazetteer.

The chief peculiarity of this group is the gradual approximation to Burmese. Burmese words occur in many of the dialects. Khami has apparently given up the use of pronominal prefixes with verbs, which forms so characteristic a feature of most Kuki-Chin languages. Khyang forms the higher numbers, as in Burmese, by prefixing the multiplier thus, ngha gip, five-tens, fifty. Chinbōk and some dialects of Khyang use a negative prefix, like Burmese, while the Kuki-Chin languages use a negative suffix. The whole sub-group is subdivided into numerous dialects, but our information is as yet not sufficient to make a definite sketch of the Southern Chin languages.

The close connection between all these dialects will appear from an examination of the vocabulary given below. Meithei, Thādo, Lushēi, Lai, Rāng-khōl, Khami, and Khyang have been given as representatives of the different sub-groups. The corresponding forms in Kachin have been added in an eighth column, as we shall have subsequently to consider the relation of that language to our group.

_	_	Meithei.		Th	ādo.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rāngkhōl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
One	•	a-mā .		khat	•.	pa-khat	pö-kat	en-kat .	hā-re .	māt	ngai-mā.
Two		a-ni .		ni		pa-nhih	pö-nī	en-nī	nü-re .	nhi .	. n'khong
Three		a-hūm		thūm		pa-thum	pö-thům	en-tūm .	thũn	thüm thün .	ma-sūm.
Four	• .	ma-ri		li		pa-li .	pö-li .	mī-lī .	p-lü	llii m-lhi	ma-lī.
Five	•	ma-ngā		ngā	•	pa-nga	pö-nga	ri-ngāh .	pā(ng) .	ngha ingho i	
Six		ta-rūk		gūp		pa-ruk	pö-rūk	ga-rūk .	te-rü	soke .	khrū.
Seven		ta-rēt		sa•gi		ya-sa-ri	pö•sē-ri	sā-ri	sē-rü .	she .	sinit.
Eight		ni-pān	•	gēt	•	pa-riat	pö-riet	ga-rīt	ta-yā .	${ m shet} { m hse}$.	
Nine		mā-pan		kū		pa-kua	pö-kua	gūōk •	ta-kā .	ko .	. cha-khū.
Ten	• .	ta-rā .		som	•	shom .	рö-га	shōm	ho	{ngha ·	

INTRODUCTION.

_	Meithei.	Thado.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rängkhöl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
Cwenty .	kul	som-ni .	shom-nhih .	pö-kül .	shōm-nī .	a-pūm .	$\left\{egin{matrix} kar{u} & \cdot \ go & \cdot \end{array}\right\}$	khān.
Fifty	yāngkhei .	som-ngā .	shom·nga .	sâm-ngā .	shōm-ri-ugāh	wei-pa .	ngha-gip haukkyit	ma-ngā-ts
Hundred .	chā-mā .	jā-khat .	za	za-kat .	ra-jā-kāt .	ta-yā .chung-wai	krāt ·}	la-chā.
	ai	kei-ma .	kei-ma .	kē-(ma) .	gē-mā .	kai	{kēi ·}	ngai.
We	ai-khoi .	kei-ho .	kei-ma-ni .	kan-ni .	Gē-nī .	{kai-hoi · }	kyē-mē .	an-thē. ī.
Thou	nang	nang(-ma) .	nang(-ma) .	nang(-ma) .	nang(-ma) .	nang .	nang .	nāng.
Не	mā	a-mā	a-ma }	am-ma .	ā-mā	hu-ni .	ayā	shi.
They	mā-khoi .	a-mā-ho .	an-ma-ni .	an-ni .	{ ā-mā-hai }	hu-ni-chē .	ai-kūl na-hoi .	shan-thë. khī-nī.
Who? .	ka-nā .	koi	tu-mâ .	a-ho-da .	tū-mōh .	a-mi-mo .	ani	damā.
What? .	ka-ri .	i-ham	Eng-mâ .	zē-da •	ī-mōh .	ā-ti-mo .	\baung \text{youm} \text{.}	gara. makhai-
Back .	namgal ma-ning	tũng-tũn .	nhung .	\begin{cases} \text{nhū} & \cdot \\ \text{kēng} & \cdot \end{cases}		ning-thūn .	\left\{\left \text{lhing \cdots} \\ \left \text{ngung \cdots} \right\}	mā. sing•māi
Belly	puk	wai	pum	pâ	ping .	tāya	hon }	kan.
Ear .	nā	{kor bil }	beng	nā .	mi-gū	kannū .	a-nho	nā.
Eye .	mit	mit	mit	myit .	mit .	mi .	mi(k)	mī.
Foot •	. khong .	kēng.	{phei }	kē .	kē .	kho .	Access of	lagöng.
Hair .	sam .	sham .	sam	sam .	sām .	shām .	san .	karā.
Hand .	khut	khut .	kut	kūt .	. kūt .	kut .	kut	latā.
Head .	kok .	lā .	lu	lā .	. lā .	· lū ·	lū(ki).	böng.
Mouth	chil .	kam mū	ka · kam · kam	kā .	mūr .	khā .	kho .	ninggūŗ
Nose .	nā-tol	nāk · }		nar .	nār .	natra.	naktē .	nādī.
Tongue	· lai .	lai .	lei .	lē .	mē-lē	• pā-lāi	. lei .	. singlet.
Tooth .	yā .	. hā	ha · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ha .	. hā .	ho .	hâ .	wā.

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	Meithei.	Thado.	Lushēi.	Lai.		Rängkhöl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
House .	yum, in	in	in	inn ,		īn	{im · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	im}	n'tā.
Man .	{mi · · · · {ni-pā · ·	mi	mi mi-pā .	mī . mī-pā	•	mī-rīm ·}	nūm-chū .	khrong .	{wa. {lāshā.
Woman .	nu-pi	nū-mai .	nu-pui (wife)	mī-nū		nū·pāng .	ոնտրնն .	{ma-tho .}	nūmshā.
Father .	ma-pā .	pā	pā	pa .		pā	ро	ро	·wā.
Mother .	ma-mā .	սն	nū	nū .		nū	neh	nū	nū.
Elder Brother	yāmā .	ů	ū	û .		ŭ-pā	yā .	atā	phū.
Younger Brother.	ma-não .	นล์นั้	nao	nao .		shang-pā .	nā	no	nau.
Sister	ma-chem ma-chai .	นิ-ทนิ . ทลีนิ-ทนิ .	п-пй пао-пй .	ū-nū uao-nū	:}	sāng-nū .	{sisa · tāi-cho .	asi	na.
Child.	ma-chā	chā	fā .	fa .		nai	dungdi .	cho	sha.
Son	ma-chā-ni-pā	chā-pā .	fa-pā	fa-pa		nai-pā .	cho-po .	cho	lāshā- māng.
Daughter .	ma-cl:ā-nu-pi	chā-nū .	fa-nū .	fa-nū		nai-nū .	nūmpūi cho.	mathâ cho .	nūmshā- māng.
Bird	u-chek .	wa-chā .	sa-va	a-vār		ār	ta-wa .	{payo }	wū.
Cat .	hau-dong .	meng-chā .	zâh-tē .	sī-zā .		mēng .	min-yang .	min	miau.
Cock	yēl lā-bā .	ā-chal .	ār-pa	arr-lhi		ār-kong	ā-lū	a-lhui .	- 1
Cow .	{sal	sirhāt ·}	se-bâng .	zâ-pi .	•	serhāt .	shirā .	{shēil .}	kinsū.
Dog .	hūi	ūi	ui	ūi-sō .		ūi	ūi .	ūi .	gui.
Goat	ha-meng .	kēl	kēl	mē-hē		gēl	mehe	mi .	bainam.
Horse .	sagol .	sakor sakol	sakor	rang ,		sakor .	kangā	shē .	gūmrāng.
Pig	ok .	wok .	vok .	. vok .		vok .	ok .	wok .	wā.
Husks	wāi .		fa-vai	. fa-vai		shā-vai		wukö	mām-pūng khâ.
Fire .	mai .	mei .	mei .	. mē .		mē .	mai .	. mbēi .	wan.
Gold .	sanā .	sanā .	rang-ka- chak.	shwī.		rang-ka-jak	mūkū	. bā .	· jā.
Iron .	yot .	thi	thir .	. tirh .	,	tīr .	sing .	thi .	m'phrī.
Sun .	nu-mit	ni i	ni .	nī .	,	$\begin{cases} \text{mi-sa} & \cdot \\ \text{ni-sa} & \cdot \end{cases}$	ka-ni	kha-ni	. jān.

INTRODUCTION.

	Meithei.	Thādo.	Lushēi.	Lai.	Rāngkhôl.	Khami.	Khyang.	Kachin.
Moon	tha	{ tlā : } thā : }	thla	kla-pa .	tā	lho	khlo	sītā.
Water .	ising	tāi	tui	ti	dūī	tāi	tāi	n'chin.
God	lāi	{pā-thēn · } thi-lhā .}	pa-thian .	kō-zīn .	pātīn .	tummui .	lhī	phrā.
Name	ming .	min	mhing .	min	er-ming .	min	ming .	ming.
Village .	khūl	${ $	khua }	kwa	kū	pre	khoa	marēng.
Year	kum (season) {	kūm	kum .	kūm	kūm		\begin{cases} \text{kum} & \\ \text{kun} & \end{cases}	ning.
Far .	lāppā .	gam-lā .	lha	a-lhāt .	āl-lāh .	lo .	lho	sān.
Near .	a-nak-pa	a-nai .	nhai .	a-nai .	ā-nai .	. kesā ,	sen · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	
Good .	pha-ba	fa .	tha .	a-ta	ā-sā . •	, hoi-nā	phoi .	gajā.
n 1	pha-ta-ba	a-fa-lo	tha-lo	a-ta-lo	. shā-māk	hoi-ē-nā	. phoi-ā	n'gajā.
*** 1	. wāng-ba	sāog .	shāng	a-shan	. ā-shē .	. āchāng	. ā-ling	. châ.
	māng-ba	mang	mang (to become ex tinct).		. mang	. tā-mā	. krok .	. ma (to l
Ask .	. hang-ba	. dong .	, zât .	hau hal .	(Little tolline,	ding .	. hi .	. san.
Beat .	. yae-ba	. vo .	. vēl .	· vēl ·	· {vo ·	} phākā	mal .	dūp.
Come .	. lāk-pa	hong .	. hâng	. būn .	. hong .	. уа	. lo .	. sā.
Die .	. sī-ba .	thi .	. thi .	. <u>th</u> ī .	. ti .	. dēi .	. du .	. sī.
Drink .	. thak-pa	. don .	in .	ding .		ni .	، ōk •	· lū.
Eat .	. chā-ba	. nē .	ei .	ē.	· { fāk	chā.	ei .	. shā.
Enter .	. chang-ba	. lhūt .	. lūt .	. lūt .	. lū .		wang.	. shāng.
Give .	pi-ba	. pē .	. pē(k) .	. pē(k)	. pē(k)	. pe .	· pek ·	. yā.
Go .	. chat-pa	che chi	$\left. \right\}$ kal .	. kal .	$\left\{egin{array}{l} (Hallar{a}n) \ & ext{se} \end{pmatrix} ight.$	takko	$\left\{ egin{array}{l} { m chet} \\ { m k\bar{a}i} \end{array} ight.$.} sā.
Kill .	. hāt-pa	that .	that .	. that .	. tāt .		tük .	. sat.
Kiss .	. chup-pa	. chop .	. fâp .	nūm .	. (Hallām,	pā-nāh	. nhom	· { chup. pūp.
Run .	chel-ba	. lhai .	. tlān .	. klik .	· (Hallām,	lai .	. chon .	. lagat.
Say ·	. hāe-ba	. ti .	. ti .	. <u>th</u> î .	} tē .	thue .	hau .	. sū.

_	_	Meithei.	Thādo.	Lu	shēi.	_	Lai.		Rā	ngkhōl.		Khami.	Kh	yang.	_	Kachin.
See		ū-ba	mū(k)	mhu		n	ıŭ.		mū		-	nhū .	mhü			mū.
Sit		pham-ba	to .	.thūt		·В	thūt tūm	:}	toi			tē .	kho			dūng.
Stand		lep-pa	ding .	ding		d	ir .		(Ha	llām, ding).		angthao	yā			chāp.
Take		lao-ba	lo .	lāk		. 1	ik .		lā			lā ,.	lo			lā.

The preceding list shows the close connection between all these languages, including

Kachin. Thus, the numerals for two, three, four, and five Discussion of the vocabulary. are practically identical in all. It will be seen that Meithei has more points of agreement with Kachin than the other languages. Thus Meithei a-mā, one, corresponds to Kachin ai-mā and ngai-mā; Meithei Connection of Meithei with ai, I, to Kachin ngai; the Meithei male suffix lā-bā in yēl Kachin. $l\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, cock, to Kachin la in u-la, cock; Meithei $h\bar{u}i$, dog, to Kachin gui (compare Burmese $khw\bar{e}$); Meithei $s\bar{i} = \text{Kachin } s\bar{i}$, to die, and so many others. The plural suffix in Meithei ai-khoi, we, corresponds to the plural suffix khai in Burmese Kachin. The suffix ni which forms the plural of personal pronouns in many Kuki-Chin languages seems to be identical with the plural suffix ni in Kachin, while the usual plural suffix te in Lushēi, Northern Chin, etc., may be compared with Kachin thē. The personal and possessive pronouns of the second person are nang, thou, and na, thy, in Kachin, as in the Kuki-Chin group. Both use generic prefixes with numerals, and no

The close connection between Kachin and the Kuki-Chin languages, especially Meithei, cannot be doubted, and Meithei must be considered as the link between the two groups.

suffixes like Burmese. The usual verbal suffix ai in Kachin corresponds to ē in Kuki-

Chin, and the infinitive suffix na is common to both.

The comparative vocabulary also shows that Meithei, in some instances, agrees, with Meithei and the southern most dialects, as against the rest. Compare Meithei yum, house; Khyang and Khami im: Meithei pha, good; Khyang phoi: Meithei hāe, say; Khyang hau, etc. Meithei and Khyang both form the higher numbers by prefixing the multiplier, while the other Kuki-Chin languages form numerals like the Lushēi shom-nga, tens-five, fifty. Meithei and Khyang seem to have preserved the same genitive suffix, Meithei ki, Khyang kheo, etc. It is probable that, in such cases, old forms have been preserved in these languages. The points of resemblance are not, however, so important that Meithei can be classed as belonging to the southern group; it must be considered as an independent member of the group, differing from the rest in many essential points.

These differences are found both in vocabulary and grammar. Sometimes, however, they are only apparent. Take, for instance, the personal pronoun of the third person, Meithei $m\bar{a}$, Thādo, Lushēi, Lai, Rāngkhōl \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, Lushēi also a-ni, Khami hu-ni, Khyang $ay\bar{a}$. It will be seen that many of these forms are compounds containing different pronominal stems, such as a, ma, ni, etc. All these stems are probably demonstrative pronouns. Meithei $m\bar{a}$, he, is the same as $m\bar{a}$ in \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$. A and ma are both used in Meithei,

apparently without any difference of meaning, in words like a-si and ma-si, this, a-du, and ma-du, that. Both stems are therefore known in Meithei, and the form \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, he, is in fact identical with $m\bar{a}$, he. \bar{A} - $m\bar{a}$ must be compared with forms such as kei- $m\bar{a}$ and kei-chu, I, where $m\bar{a}$ and chu both seem to be demonstrative pronouns added to give definiteness.* There are many more points of resemblance between Meithei and Kuki-Chin than between Meithei and any other Tibeto-Burman languages, such as Nāgā or Kachin. An important one is the Meithei negative suffix loi, which is certainly identical with Rāngkhōl loi, Lushēi, etc., lo. Considering, therefore, the question as a whole, there is no doubt that Meithei is more closely connected with the Kuki-Chin languages than with any other group.

Kuki-Chin languages proper. We now turn to the Kuki-Chin languages proper.

One of the first things which strikes us when comparing the Kuki-Chin languages with the surrounding forms of speech is the small number of otiose prefixes. Most prefixes have a distinct and easily recognisable meaning of their own. I have, however, already

mentioned that there are some traces of a prefix a used in the formation of adjectives and verbal nouns, in the same manner as the corresponding prefix in Burmese, Kachin, Lepcha, and other languages. It is difficult to say whether it is identical with the common Tibetan prefix a or is originally a pronoun.†

It seems in the Kuki-Chin group to have been confounded with the possessive pronoun of the third person which also frequently appears in all these dialects, and will be dealt with later on.

Another prefix of common occurrence in the Bodo and Nāgā languages is ga or ka.

It is generally used to form adjectives and verbal nouns. Compare Bâṛâ g^a -hām, good; g^a - $za\bar{u}$, high; Angāmi ke- $zh\bar{a}$, large; ka-ti, black; Mikir ke-en, acceptance; ke- $d\bar{o}$, existence; ke- $ch\bar{o}$, food, etc. The same suffix is also used in Kachin; thus ga-sat, a fight; ka-ba, big; ka-ja, good, etc. Ka is the possessive pronoun of the first person in most Kuki-Chin languages. But it has sometimes a wider use. Thus, we find in Hallām ka- $s\bar{e}r$, \sin ; ka- $s\bar{u}ak$, a slave. It is possible that such forms contain the prefix ka just mentioned, for there are also three Kuki-Chin dialects, Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgāng, and Kōm, which use the prefix ka in exactly the same way as in Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin. Thus, Kōm a-ka- $l\bar{a}m$, dancing; ka- $r\bar{e}$, companion; ka- $lh\bar{a}$, far; ka- $th\bar{a}$, good, etc.

The corresponding use of a prefix ka in Bodo, Nāgā, Kachin, and Kuki-Chin can only be explained by assuming its existence in the original language from which they are all derived. It must therefore have been dropped in many cases in the Kuki-Chin languages. The reason for its disappearance seems to be a double one. In the first place it was confounded with, and probably often superseded by, the possessive pronoun of the first person. The possessive pronouns are in all Kuki-Chin languages used in many cases where they seem to be altogether superfluous, a fact which will be explained later on.

Compare the Western Nagā ma or mi, and the Kuki-Chin mi, all meaning 'man.'
 † The prefix a has been dealt with by Dr. August Conrady in his important study entitled Eine Indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung und ihr Zusammenhang mit den Tonaccenten. Leipzig, 1896. See especially pp. 20 and ff.

On the other hand, the disappearance of prefixes such as ka is easily accounted for as follows:—

The vowels of prefixes seem in many Kuki-Chin languages to be very faintly pronounced. They are frequently changed so as to agree with the vowel of the following syllable, and are not infrequently dropped altogether. Thus, we find in Hiroi-Lamgāng ka-chēn-a, run; ki-di-yā, die; kū-dūi, rejoice; ka-lā and klā, far. The form klā represents a state of phonetic development corresponding to that prevailing in Tibetan, when that language was reduced into writing. The next step, which has been taken by modern Tibetan, is to drop the prefix altogether. In many cases the following consonant became aspirated as a compensation for the lost prefix. Compare Hiroi-Lamgāng klā; Lushēi lhā, far; Hiroi-Lamgāng sen-klo, Lushēi chhiah-lhāh, servant; Rāngkhōl ir-ming, Lushēi mhing, name, etc. In this way the dropping of prefixes in most Kuki-Chin languages can be accounted for. The whole question has been dealt with by Professor Conrady in his work Eine Indochinesische Causativ-Denominativ-Bildung, quoted above.

I now proceed to discuss some of the chief peculiarities of the Kuki-Chin group, General character of Kuki- and more especially of the Kuki-Chin languages proper. Chin languages proper.

The Kuki-Chin languages, and originally all Tibeto-Burman languages, evince a strong tendency to avoid abstract terms. Their words are usually the expressions of individual conceptions, and not of abstract ideas. Many dialects, for instance, seem to avoid the general word for 'man,' and generally use their own tribal name instead. Thus, we find sing-phō, man, in Sing-phō; kha-mi in Khami, and so in others.

This tendency towards individual conception of all objects makes it very difficult to compare the vocabularies of different dialects, it being, in many cases, uncertain whether the idea is exactly the same in the various forms of speech. The great number of different terms for closely-related ideas in the Kuki-Chin languages will appear from a few instances. Thus, in Lushei we find the following words for 'ant':-fang-mhīr, dārchong-tual-a, mong-er, naochâ-thing-bâm, chhim-tai-vang, thui-op, khuang-ruang, rai-sheh tai-vang and tah-ek, all probably denoting various kinds of ants. 'Basket' is translated bám, ēm, ben-von, dá-ron, ēm-pai, fong, rhai, kho, paiper, pip, thūl, reng-pui, reng-tē, tuichoi-káng, vān-lai-fong, ba-bun-kho, bám-rāng, dān-rhai, pai-káng, and tlām-ēm. There are different words for the different kinds of deer: thus, Lushei sa-khi, a barking deer; sa-zuk, a sambhar, etc., but no general word for deer. Even words such as brother and sister are usually wanting. Thus, Lushei u-nu, elder sister; nao-nu, younger sister; chhang-bung, the sister next to one's self in age; far-nu, a man's sister; lai-san-nu, a woman's sister; pian-pui, own sister, etc., but no word for 'sister' generally. There are different words for the various modes of coming or going, but no proper words denoting the pure act of coming or going, and so forth.

It is a necessary consequence of this tendency towards specialisation that the Kuki-Chin languages are rich in apparent synonyms, but its effect can also be traced in many other characteristic features.

The words denoting relationship and parts of the body are the result of an abstraction. A father in the abstract, who is not the father of any individual person, is an idea which requires a certain amount

of reflection; and such words are, accordingly, never used alone in the Kuki-Chin languages, but are always preceded by a possessive pronoun. A father cannot be imagined except as somebody's father, and a hand cannot be thought of except as belonging to someone. Thus, Thādo $k\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$, my father; $n\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}$, thy mother; \bar{a} $kh\bar{u}t$, his hand. $P\bar{a}$, $n\bar{u}$, and $kh\bar{u}t$ are never used by themselves. In this way the idea is again specialised. The possessive pronoun is, of course, unnecessary when the noun is defined by means of a genitive. Thus, Lushēi \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{e}$ (not \bar{a} - $k\bar{e}$), his father's foot. But even in such cases we find that the tendency towards specialisation has caused a possessive pronoun to be added to the governing noun. In this way we find combinations such as $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ \bar{a} -khut, my mother's her-hand, with which we may compare the German idiom dem Vater sein Haus, to the father his house, the house of the father.

The possessive pronoun of the third person occurs, of course, much more frequently than those of the first and second persons; and it can easily Gradual loss of meaning of develop into becoming a real genitive prefix. Thus, the Norwegian word sin, his, is dialectically used as a genitive suffix, not only after words in the third person, but even after the personal pronoun of the first person. For instance we find not only far sin, the father his, the father's, but even min sin, my his, my. The same development may be observed in some Kuki-Chin languages. We find in Rangkhōl gē-mā ā-nāi, my his-daughter, instead of gē-mā gē-nāi, my my-daughter, my daughter. The prefix \bar{a} may, next, be easily considered as an integral portion of the word, and in this way we must certainly account for many of the cases where words in the Kuki-Chin languages begin with \bar{a} . This prefix \bar{a} is often found in words where also Burmese would use a prefix a, and it is probable that the prefixes have been confounded in the Kuki-Chin languages. The question of the origin of the Burmese a is, however, still an open one, but the origin of the Kuki-Chin prefix \bar{a} from the possessive pronoun seems to be proved by the corresponding use of the possessive pronoun ma in Meithei; thus, ma-khong, his-foot; ma-pham, place; ma-ning, back; ma-tam, time; ma-tik, worthy, etc. Anal, an Old Kuki dialect which has been largely influenced by Meithei, seems to use both prefixes in exactly the same way; thus, ma-rūp ma-pāng, (my) friends (and) companions; a-mī-nai, a slave, etc. The prefix ma in Meithei seems to be identical with mi, which is often prefixed to nouns relating to parts of the human body in Empēo; thus, mi-pā, hand.1

It is a well-known fact that the Tibeto-Burman languages have not developed a proper verb. The words which perform the functions of verbs are, in other cases, used as nouns, and may, for all practical purposes, be considered as verbal nouns denoting an action. The so-called verbs are therefore also inflected like nouns. The various tenses are formed by adding postpositions, or are compounds, the last part of which has the meaning of finishing, beginning, etc. This substantival character of the verbs is very apparent in the Kuki-Chin languages.

The mere root, that is the theme of the verbal noun, is commonly used to denote present and past times; the future is usually formed by adding a postposition, which often also occurs after ordinary nouns with the meaning 'for,' in order to.' The verbal noun is combined with the ordinary case suffixes in order to form adverbial clauses. A postposition \bar{a} , which is usually added to nouns in the locative case, forms different kinds of

¹ It must be borne in mind that the possessive pronoun of the third person is originally a demonstrative pronoun, and that the demonstrative pronouns in Tibeto-Burman languages to a great extent also occur as verbs substantive. The prefix a can therefore also be considered as a relative participle of the verb substantive.

participles, e.g., Lushëi shoi- \bar{a} , saying, lit. in the act of saying. The verbal noun is often used as a genitive, governed by another noun. Thus, Aimol a-thi-nū, his dying (-of) back, i.e., after he had died, compare the suffix nui which forms conjunctive participles in Bârâ. The root alone is used as a relative participle; thus, Thado yām-ching-mi, sheep-tending-man, i.e., a shepherd; Zahao a-um-lai-a, his-being-time-at, i.e., when This relative participle is, practically, a verbal noun in the genitive governed by the qualified noun. Sometimes even the plural suffixes are added to the verbs; thus, Lushēi puan ka-mhu-te, cloth I-saw-plural-suffix, the clothes I saw; Rāngkhōl tū-tē $\bar{a}\text{-}\bar{o}m\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}hai$, any-one is-not-plural-suffix, no people are there, etc.

Verbs are treated like nouns.

The verbs in the Kuki-Chin languages are, also in other respects, subject to the same general rules as ordinary nouns. The verbs are, as a rule, never conceived in the abstract, but are always put in relation to some noun as their subject. This is effected in the same The subject a possessive proway as with ordinary nouns, by prefixing the possessive pronouns, so that the expression 'my going' is used instead of 'I go.' Thus Lushëi kei-mā ka-nī, my my-being, I am; nang-mā i-nī, thy thy-being, thou art; a-mā a-nī, his his-being, he is. This peculiarity is very characteristic of the true Kuki-Chin languages. It is unknown in Meithei and a few dialects which have been much influenced by that language, such as Anāl, Hiroi-Lamgang, and Pūrūm, and it seems also not to be used in Khami. There are, however, in these dialects also some traces of the same peculiarity, and it seems probable that it has once prevailed over a wider area than it does at the present time.

Mr. Houghton states that the possessive pronouns are used in the same way in Gyārang and some of the Circassian languages, and we also find Analogies in other languages. analogous facts in some Naga dialects. Thus, the possessive pronouns are used to denote the subject in Namsangiā Nāgā before the potential form of the verb; for instance, i-ta-thienang, my-able-being-putting, I can put.

We have seen that the possessive pronoun may be omitted before ordinary nouns when qualified by means of a prefixed genitive. The same is Loose use of the possessive pronoun when used as a subject. the case with regard to verbs, when the subject is otherwise indicated.

We also find that the possessive pronoun of the third person is occasionally substi-The pronominal prefix a with tuted for those of the first and second persons, exactly as in verbs. the case of nouns. Thus, Rangkhol nang a-om-ta, thou wast, lit. thy his-being-finishing; gē tinā ā-fē-tā, I have gone, lit. my formerly his-goingfinishing. This use of the possessive pronoun \bar{a} in all persons is especially frequent in Anal, and this dialect has, consequently, given up the regular use of the possessive pronouns before verbs.

A prefix \bar{a} is generally used before adjectives in the Kuki-Chin languages, and there can be no doubt that it is originally, in most cases, the Adjectives are formally verbs. possessive pronoun of the third person. The adjectives are formally verbs, and may, like other verbs, be used to indicate the predicate, or like relative participles, to qualify a noun. There is, for instance, no formal difference between Kolrēn a-lāk, far, and a-om, being, in a-mā ram-ā a-om mi khat, that country-in being man one. The prefix a is exactly the same in both cases. A noun qualified by an adjective can only be in the third person, and the adjective is, accordingly, in such cases always preceded by the possessive pronoun of the third person.

On the other hand, when adjectives perform the functions of real verbs they are usually preceded by the possessive pronouns indicating the person of the subject. Thus, Lushëi kei-mā ka-shāng-loh, my my-tall-being-not, I am not tall; Siyin nang sāng kē-mā ka-tha-tak-zau-hi, thee than I I strong-more-am, I am stronger than thou.

We have thus seen how the tendency to specialise and individualise has caused the use of pronominal prefixes before nouns, verbs, and adjectives. The same tendency may also be adduced to explain the use of generic prefixes with numerals. The numerals are, in this way, restricted in their sphere so as to apply to some special kind of objects. The generic prefixes are, however, not peculiar to the Kuki-Chin languages, and we need not here enter into the question about their use. Suffice it to note that these generic particles are prefixes as in Bodo, Mikir, Empēo, etc., and not suffixes as in Burmese. In Lai the noun itself, or some part of it, is sometimes used as a generic prefix; thus rang rang-kat, horse horse-one, one horse; sī-zá zá-kat, one cat. But in most cases these prefixes have apparently now lost their proper meaning. The materials collected for the Linguistic Survey are not, however, sufficient for deciding whether generic prefixes are used in all Kuki-Chin dialects.

The negative verb is, with very few exceptions, formed by suffixing a negative particle. In Chinbōk and some dialects of Khyang we find a negative prefix as in Burmese.

The most usual negative particles have already been mentioned, and need not be repeated here. The negative lo, which is used in Thādo, Paitē, Lushēi, Zahao, Lai, Banjōgī, Pānkhū, and Mhār, is identical with the loi of Meithei and Rāngkhōi, and the lai of Langrong. It seems to correspond to the Burmese verb lo, to need, to want, to be destitute of. The initial l is perhaps derived from the negative prefix n, and the final o or ai a verb substantive. The negative $m\bar{a}k$ in the Old Kuki dialects may, in the same way, correspond to Lushēi $m\bar{a}k$, to give up. It is, however, more probable that $m\bar{a}k$ is a compound, consisting of the negative prefix ma and a verb substantive. Compare Balti uk in zir-uk, I say; argos-uk, it is necessary, etc. On the whole it may safely be assumed that the negative suffixes in the Kuki-Chin languages contain a negative prefix which is not, however, prefixed to the principal verb but to the old copula which is added as an assertive suffix. The negative verb would, accordingly, be a compound. The negative particle is usually inserted between the root and the tense suffixes, a fact which well agrees with the supposition of its being a verb forming a compound.

The negative particle ni in Pūrūm is sometimes used as a verb, meaning 'is wanting,' is not'; thus, $lai \cdot m\bar{a}$ $ni \cdot yau \cdot w\bar{e}$, a-little is-not-there, it is not enough. $Ka \cdot th\bar{a} \cdot ka \cdot m\bar{a}$, good-not, bad, in Hiroi-Lamgāng, where the prefix ka is added to the negative $m\bar{a}$, seems also to point to the conclusion that the negative verb is a compound.

We may, finally, note that there is sometimes a reduplication of the principal verb Bedoplication of principal verb before negative. before the negative; thus Kolren $na-p\bar{e}-p\bar{e}k-mao-yai$, did not give. Similarly, in Mikir, where the negative particle is \bar{e} , the first consonant of the principal verb is invariably repeated before it. In Khyang, as in Burmese, the ordinary tense suffixes are often dispensed with in the negative form. There does not seem to be anything corresponding in other Kuki-Chin languages.

MANIPURÎ OR MEITHEI.

Meithei, the chief language of Manipur, differs from the other Kuki-Chin languages in so many points that it must be classed as a separate sub-group. It has been returned as the language of 240,637 individuals. It has largely influenced the dialects of other tribes spoken in the Manipur State. The short vocabularies in Andro, Sengmai, and Chairel which have been subjoined, will illustrate this fact.

The valley of Manipur is inhabited by a people who call themselves Meithei. The Bengalis call them Moglai, the Thādos Mei-lei, and the Assamese Mēklē, or Mēkhalī. The name Meithei is generally written Maiḥṭai in Assam. The people are known to the Burmese as Pōṇṇās, that is Brahmins, and Kathēs, the latter name comprising the low caste Manipuris.

According to their own traditions, the Mayarang tribe has come from the South, the Khūmals from the East, and the Meitheis proper and the Luyāngs from the North-West. The surrounding hill tribes assert that they are the progenitors of the Manipurī race. McCulloch mentions the curious facts, that one of their ceremonies, denominated Phumban-ka-bā, or 'ascending of the throne,' is performed in Naga dress, and that the original residence of the Meithei chiefs is made in the Naga fashion. It is, he says, still kept up though the chief does not reside in it any more. The following account of the Manipurīs is reprinted from Mr. Gait's Assamese Census Report:—

'The true Manipuris, who now claim to be Kshattriyas, are divided into four tribes,—Khūmal, Luyāng, Ningthaujā (Meithei), and Mayarāng.¹ Each tribe contains numerous exogamous phoids or family groups, the names of which are generally indicative of the occupation of the founder, or some nickname which was applied to him. The earliest mention of the Manipuris is contained in the chronicles of the Pong Shāns, in which it is said that Samlong, a brother of the Pong king, descended into the valley about 777 A.D. on his return from Tipperah, but found the Manipuris so poor that he exacted little or no tribute from them. Their history for the next 1,000 years appears to have been sufficiently uneventful. Their power and prosperity steadily increased up to the middle of the eighteenth century, when we find the Raja invading Burmese territory. He was, however, eventually defeated, and shortly afterwards the Burmese turned the tables on him and invaded Manipur. The history of the subsequent years is one of constant internal feuds, due to disputes about the succession, which usually ended in Burmese intervention. On the conclusion of the Burmese war, the independence of the State was declared, and since that time Manipur has been under the protection of the British Government.

'The Manipuris are strict Hindus of the Vaishnava sect. They eat fish, but will not touch flesh, and profess to be very particular in their social and religious observances, and especially in adorning their foreheads with the tilak Their chief festivals are the Rāsh and Gosthabihār, when they commemorate Krishna's sports with the milkmaids and the time he passed amongst the cowherds. About the middle of the eighteenth century, the Brāhmans professed to have discovered that the Raja and his subjects were descended from Arjun, the hero of the Mahābhārata, by a Nāgā woman, and that they were consequently Kshattriyas of the Lunar race. On this, the ruling prince, Gharib Nawāz, embraced Hinduism, and after a great ceremony of purification, was invested with the sacred thread. Many of his subjects apostasised with him, and they, as well as all later converts, were also allowed to describe themselves as Kshattriyas. They have their own Brāhmans, who are said to be the descendants of the Brāhmans who originally immigrated, by Manipuri women.

'There are some Sūdra Manipuris, who, it is supposed, are the descendants of immigrants who married Manipuri wives. There is also a degraded class called Kālācheiya or Bishnupuri, which consists of the descendants of Doms and other Bengalis of low caste. Their occupation was originally that of supplying grass for the royal stables. They speak a language, which is different from that of the true Manipuris, and is in fact closely allied to vulgar Bengali.

¹ I am indebted to Mr. T. C. Hodson for several valuable notes about the various tribes in Manipur. He writes, 'Meithei seems to me to be the name of the confederacy of the Angams, Kumals, Luangs, Ningthajas, Moirangs, Chengleis, and Khabanambas. There are even now seven saleis or clans, of which the chief is the Ningthaja or Royal clan. My investigations lead me to believe that there were originally at least ten, perhaps more. These saleis are theoretically exogamous, and of course their minor divisions are exogamous also.'

'Although the Manipuris now call themselves Hindus, they still retain much of their old animistic worship, and McCulloch says that they have "above three hundred deities who are still propitiated by sacrifices of things abhorrent to real Hindus." The Manipuris are addicted to snake worship, and every man has hanging in his house a small basket, which is supposed to contain his house-hold deity. The priests and priestesses, who perform these ceremonies, are called *Maibas* and *Maibis*. They practise exorcism in a way similar to that which has already been described in connection with other tribes. Any one who claims to have had a call may become a Maiba.

'The Manipuri Musalmans are said to be the descendants of persons who took Musalman wives before Hinduism became the State religion. They are supposed to have been more numerous before the Burmese invasions. [According to Mr. Hodson, they claim to be descended from Muhammadan prisoners taken by the Manipuris in their raids on Cachar, and they are, from time to time, reinforced by immigrants from Cachar.]

'Wives are purchased; they are really the slaves of their husbands, and are occasionally sold by them when in debt. Chastity before marriage is not insisted on. Widow re-marriage is permitted, and so also divorce; but if a man puts away his wife without a fault, she has theoretically a right to take all his property, except his drinking pot and the cloth round his loins.'

During the Burmese invasions and the internal troubles which preceded the advent of the British, many Manipuris settled in Cachar and Sylhet. They are found in the south of the Cachar Plains, and many of them are also settled in Hill Tipperah where the language is also called Mēkhalī. In Dacca they call themselves Mai-tai or Mi-tāi, and there are also a few immigrants from Manipur in Mymensingh and in Sibsagar. The numbers of speakers are returned as follows:—

Manipur State	23							150,000
Cachar Plains								42,077
Sylhet .								30,000
Hill Tipperah	·							18,000
Dacca .			•					250
Mymensingh	<u>.</u>							200
Sibsagar .								110
						То	TAL	240,637

Manipuri is, to some extent, a literary language. Mr. Damant gives the following account of the literature:—

'The most important MS. is called the "Tākhelgnamba," and contains an account of the wars between Pamhaiba, alias Garib-Namaz, [Gharīb-nawāz] king of Manipur and the Rājā of Tiparah. The copy in my possession contains 45 leaves written on both sides. The next in importance is the "Samsokgnamba," which is a history of the war between Charairongbā and his son Pamhaiba of Manipur and the kings of Burma and Sumjok. It contains 36 leaves. The "Lānglol," a short MS. of ten leaves only, is a treatise on morals, intermixed with proverbs and maxims, and would probably be interesting as throwing light on the customs of the Manipuris before their conversion to Hinduism. The only other MSS. of which I have been able to obtain information, are the "Meiyāng-gnamba," an account of the wars between Manipur and Kachār, and the "Salkau," a treatise on cattle and the respect to be shown them. The above seem to comprise the whole literature of Manipur; but it is just possible that further search may reveal one or two other works. The MSS. are all written on a coarse, but very durable, kind of paper, with pens made of bamboo; paper blackened with charcoal on which they write with a soapstone pencil is also used. The character has now been almost entirely superseded by Bengali, and indeed but few of the Manipuris can read it. A national chronicle is, however, still kept in the old character by the guild of priests, "maibees" as they are called, in which every event of importance occurring in the country is regularly recorded."

Mr. Damant is of opinion that the old Manipuri alphabet was introduced from Bengal in the reign of Charairongba, who flourished about 1700 A.D. There are no traces of the existence of writing in Manipur before that time. According to Mr. Hodson, local tradition declares that the art of writing was acquired from the Chinese, who came to Manipur about 1540 A.D. I reproduce, after Mr. Damant, a table showing the signs occurring in the old alphabet.

Mr. T. C. Hodson mentions the Ning-thau-vol, or history of the kings of Manipur, in which the first touch of history is dated 1432; the epic of Khamba; Numit-kappa, the tale of the man who shot the Sun, and several other ballads.

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I am indebted to the Rev. William Pettigrew for a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son in Manipuri. This translation has been transliterated into the ancient character by Pandit Sārang Ōjhā, and both texts are printed below. It will be seen that there is a slight difference between the two, Sārang Ōjhā often marking a vowel as long where Mr. Pettigrew gives the short sound. I have in the transliterated text chiefly followed Mr. Pettigrew. Additions made by Sārang Ōjhā are given within brackets. As far as I have been able to do so I have corrected the inconsistencies of the original. The

third specimen comes from Hill Tipperah, and is of comparatively small value. The second one, which has been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, has been taken down in Manipur, and is an excellent specimen. The list of standard words and phrases is also due to Babu Bisharup Singh, but I have added a few forms from two other lists, one from Dacca, and one from Hill Tipperah. All these texts, as also two other translations of the parable, exhibit essentially the same language. The remarks on Manipuri grammar which follow are almost entirely based on the specimens. Mr. Primrose's Manual is too short for getting a clear idea of this form of speech, and it is desirable that some one should undertake to give a fuller description of the language. Mr. Damant states that the old manuscripts are unintelligible to most Manipuris. They are apparently written in verses, but the short specimen printed by Mr. Damant is not sufficient for a comparison. It contains the forms of the future and the imperative usual in modern Manipuri, and the relative participle is formed in the same way. Many of the words are the same as in the modern language. But I have not been able to analyse the text properly, and an annotated edition of a greater part of some old manuscript, if possible with an interlinear translation, would certainly be a most useful undertaking.

Pronunciation.—K, t, p, and ch are, in the old manuscripts, generally written instead of g, d, b, and j, respectively, and the same is also often the case in modern writing. There are also in other respects several inconsistencies, and it is often very difficult to see which pronunciation is meant. Thus we very often find long and short vowels used promiscuously. Final vowels of monosyllabic words are probably long; thus, mi, man: $m\bar{a}$, he; $p\bar{a}$, father. But a long vowel is apparently shortened in most cases where a new syllable is added. Thus, $m\bar{a}$, he, but ma-khoi, they; $y\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, elder brother, but $ma-y\bar{a}ma-d\bar{a}$. his-elder-brother-to; a-mā, one, but a-ma-nā, one by. There are, however, many exceptions to this rule, especially in the two first specimens. And in the short text from an old manuscript printed by Mr. Damant there is no trace of such a change. A short a is apparently often written to denote the indistinct vowel sound between concurring consonants. Thus we find pi-da-rē, gave not; woi-d-rē, am not, etc., where da or d is the negative particle. U is apparently also used in the same way, for we find the same suffix written dunā, danā, and tnā, d and t being interchangeable. Thus, hāi-du-nā and hāi-da-nā, saying; khai-t-nā, dividing. The last form, khai-t-nā, has been taken from a translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son which has not been printed. This vowel sound seems to be dropped before another vowel. Thus we find saora-duna. getting angry; but tau-rē, did, where $r\bar{e}$ apparently is ra + the suffix \bar{e} . The vowel uis perhaps, in some words at least, pronounced as ü. We may infer this from the form yim occurring as a doublet of yum, a house.

The writing of the diphthongs is more consistent, but there is also here some uncertainty. Thus, we find the word for 'tongue' written lai and lei. The first component, a or e, is stated to be short. Where the a is long, we find this diphthong written $\bar{a}i$; thus, $h\bar{a}i$, say. The last component of ai is often written as e in the old manuscripts, and the sound is probably more open than i, like the last portion of the sound of the i in English 'high.' The same remark holds good with regard to oi, which often occurs as oe. Initial oi is interchangeable with woi; thus, oi and woi, to be. The latter form is probably the correct one, there being no proper sign for w, that for u being used to supply its place.

The consonants b and p; d and t; g and k; r and l seem to be interchangeable in such a way that the soft consonants are used after a vowel, the hard ones after a consonant, r being considered as the soft doublet of l. After m, n, and ng, we usually find b, d, and g, but l and not r. Thus, $pha-b\bar{a}$, good; $a-w\bar{a}ng-b\bar{a}$, high; but $a-r\bar{a}p-p\bar{a}$, far: ma- $p\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$, his-father-to; yum- $d\bar{a}$, the-house-in; ngon- $d\bar{a}$, to; $m\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$, before; but laubuk-tā, fields-to: ai-gi, my; phang-ga-da-bā, which shall be received; kēn-gē, with a view to fall; but ok-ki, the swine's (food); na-hāk-ki, thy: tau-rē, did; ma-ran, his property; but lan, property; $m\bar{a}ng$ - $l\bar{e}$, was lost; them-jil- $l\bar{e}$, entreated. Ch and j are probably interchanged in the same way, but there are no certain instances in the specimens. In the old manuscripts the hard consonants are generally written instead of the soft ones, and this practice accounts for most of the exceptions to the rule which occur in the specimens. B, d, g, and r never occur as finals. The rule regarding the use of these consonants is, therefore, the same as in Burmese, where, however, the sound r does not exist, there being accordingly nothing corresponding to the interchange between r and l. The other groups, b and p; g and k; d and t, seem to represent the sounds which are phonetically called hard lenes.

L is also often interchangeable with n; thus, $s\bar{a}$ -gol and $s\bar{a}$ -gon, horse; khol and

khong, sound; hal and han, to cause, etc.

Consonants are often doubled; thus, $y\bar{a}mma$ and $y\bar{a}ma$, elder brother; phammo, sit; $w\bar{a}ngngi$, is tall; $n\bar{i}ngng\bar{e}$, wished, etc. Ngng is perhaps an assimilation of ng-l. Compare $t\bar{a}ng$ -ngam- $b\bar{a}$ and $t\bar{a}ng$ -lam- $b\bar{a}$, dearth; chang-ngoi, probably for chang-loi, will not enter, etc. In phatta- $b\bar{a}$, bad, from a-pha- $b\bar{a}$, good, the two ts are perhaps derived from contraction. Compare phat-loi, bad.

The word $l\bar{a}k$, to come, also occurs as la, with the final consonant dropped.

The consonants gh, chh, jh, \hat{n} ; all the cerebrals; dh, bh, v, \acute{s} , sh, and khya, are apparently foreign to the language. \hat{S} is written in $i\acute{s}ai$, song, but seems only to denote s. In $san\bar{a}$, gold, the s is, in the list of words received from Dacca, said to be pronounced like a double s.

There are said to be at least two different tones in Manipuri, but I have not seen any description of them.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral a- $m\bar{a}$, one, supplies the place of an indefinite article, while definiteness is denoted by means of demonstrative pronouns and relative participles.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus, i- $p\bar{a}$, my father; ma-ttu, his wife; ma-khut, his hand, etc. The reduplicated noun $p\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, father, is, however, used alone in the first specimen. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $b\bar{a}$, O father. In the same way we also find $ang\bar{a}ng$, O child.

Gender.—There is apparently only the natural gender, inanimate nouns being neuter. Different words are generally used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus, $ma-p\bar{a}$, his father; $ma-m\bar{a}$, his mother: $ma-w\bar{a}$, her husband; ma-tu, his wife: $ni-p\bar{a}$, a man; nu-pi, a woman. The words $ni-p\bar{a}$ and nu-pi are also added to other words in order to distinguish their gender; thus, $ma-ch\bar{a}$ $ni-p\bar{a}$ and $ni-p\bar{a}$ $ma-ch\bar{a}$, his son; $ma-ch\bar{a}$ nu-pi and nu-pi $ma-ch\bar{a}$, his daughter. In the case of animals we find the suffixes $l\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, male, and a-mom, female; thus, sa-gol $l\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, a horse; sa-gol a-mom, a mare. In words such as san-bi, cow, a feminine suffix bi or pi is used.

Number.—The suffix of the plural, in the case of human beings, is sing or sing; thus, ma-nāi-sīng, his servants; ma-chā nu-pi sing, daughters. Sing is said to be used to denote the definite plural. Other words added in order to convey the idea of plurality are pum-na-mak, all; ma-yām, a multitude; khi-pik, every, etc. Thus, sa-gol pum-na-mak, horses; ōk ma-yām, pigs, etc.

Case.—No suffix is necessary for the Nominative. Thus, mi a-ma-gi ma- $ch\bar{a}$ ni- $p\bar{a}$ a-ni lai-ram-mi, man one-of his-sons two were. Sometimes di is added, apparently in order to denote definiteness. Thus, sa-gol a-ngau-ba-gi $s\bar{a}$ -ban-di yumung- $d\bar{a}$ lai, horse white of the-saddle house-in is. The suffix of the agent, which is generally added to the subject of a transitive verb, is $n\bar{a}$; thus, ma- $p\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ ma-khoi a-ni-gi damak lan-thum $y\bar{e}l$ - $l\bar{e}$, his father them two-of sake-for property divided. In the first specimen we also find $n\bar{a}$ added to the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, ma- $ch\bar{a}$ a-hal a-du- $n\bar{a}$ lai-buk- $t\bar{a}$ lai-ram-mi, his son old that fields-in was. The suffix $n\bar{a}$ is here out of place.

The Accusative is often formed without any suffix; thus, $k\bar{a}ng$ -khol a-du-su a-hing $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ lau-ra- $g\bar{a}$ nung-thin ma- $y\bar{a}ma$ - $d\bar{a}$ pi, curtain that-also at-night he taking, at-day his-elder-brother-to gave. The suffix bu, concerning, is sometimes added in order to denote the object; thus na- $h\bar{a}k$ -ki $y\bar{a}thang$ -bu $h\bar{i}k$ -thok- $t\bar{e}$, thy command (I) disobeyed-not. The form ai-bu in na- $h\bar{a}k$ -ki na- $ch\bar{a}$ -ni $h\bar{a}i$ - $b\bar{a}$ ai-bu ma-tik woi-d- $r\bar{e}$, thy thy-son-am to-say me-to fitness is-not, means 'to me,' 'concerning me.' Compare swarga-bu $m\bar{a}i$ on-thok-tu- $n\bar{a}$, heaven-from face turning-away.

The suffix of the Genitive is gi, and the governed word precedes the governing one. A possessive pronoun is often prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, $na-p\bar{a}-gi$ yum, thy father's house; ma-du-gi ma-man, that-of its-price, the price of that. The suffix gi is sometimes dropped; thus, $ma-y\bar{a}ma-gi$ san $ma-chin-n\bar{a}$ tau-ba-ni $h\bar{a}i-da-n\bar{a}$, his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by done-is saying, saying that it had been done by the mouth of the cattle of his elder brother; $ma-s\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{a}i-bok$ $a-m\bar{a}$, body-of half one.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Dā means 'in,' 'at,' 'to'; thus, lau-buk-tā, in the fields, to the fields; ma-du-dā, that-in, then. Ngon is usually prefixed to $d\bar{a}$ in the sense of 'to' when added to personal pronouns and the word mi, man; thus, $m\bar{a}$ -ngon- $d\bar{a}$, him to. The postposition gi, which we have found to be the suffix of the genitive, is often added to $d\bar{a}$, and da-gi means 'from.' Thus, $kuh\bar{a}$ -dagi, from the well; a-ni-da-gi hēnnā pha-bā, two-among-from more good, better. Budi seems to be used in the same sense in ma-gi ma-chan-bu-di ma-nāo-nā hēnnā wāng-i, him-of his-sister-concerning-from his-brother exceeding high-is, his brother is taller than his sister. Note the suffix of the agent in ma-nāo-nā, his brother. Damak, for the sake of, is a substantive, and the genitive suffix gi is added to the preceding noun; thus, mā-gi damak, his sake-for. Gā means 'with'; thus, i-pāng-gā, my-companions with. Loi-na-nā, together, is often added to $g\bar{a}$. $M\bar{a}ng-d\bar{a}$, in the front of, before, is originally a substantive. The same is the case with $tung-d\bar{a}$, back at, behind; $nung-d\bar{a}$, interior-in interior-to, in, into; and numerous other postpositions. The governed noun is put in the genitive; thus, ma-bungāni-gi ma-rak-tā, both among, in the middle of those two. $N\bar{a}$ is the usual postposition denoting the agent. It also means 'with,' 'by means of'; thus lām-bā-nā, hunger-with; thauri-nā, ropes-with.

Adjectives.—Almost all adjectives are in form relative participles ending in $b\bar{a}$ or $n\bar{a}$. The suffix $b\bar{a}$ is occasionally changed to bi in the feminine. An a is often prefixed

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The initial a in the three first numerals is a prefix the meaning of which is uncertain. It is dropped in ni- $p\bar{a}n$, two-from-ten, eight; $m\bar{a}$ -pan, one-from-ten, nine, etc. Compare Tableng pan, ten. The higher numbers are reckoned by scores. Thus, kul, twenty; kun- $thr\bar{a}$, that is kul- $tar\bar{a}$, twenty-ten, thirty. The word phu seems to mean 'score'; thus, ni-phu, two scores, forty. It will be seen that the lower numeral follows the higher one when it is added to it, but precedes kul, phu, twenty, when there is a multiplication; thus, $h\bar{u}m$ -phu-ta- $r\bar{a}$, three times twenty and ten, seventy. The same principle prevails in Singphō. The forms for 'one,' 'four,' 'five,' and 'hundred,' are also practically identical with those occurring in that language; thus Manipurī a- $m\bar{a}$, Singphō ai- $m\bar{a}$, one; Manipurī ma-ri, Singphō ma-li, four; Manipurī and Singphō ma- $ng\bar{a}$, five; Manipurī $ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, Singphō la- $ch\bar{a}$, hundred. $Ch\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, hundred-one, shows that the multiplier is suffixed to the numeral $ch\bar{a}$, hundred. The same is the case with lising, thousand; thus, lising a-ni $ch\bar{a}$ ma-ri, two thousand four hundred. The numeral $g\bar{a}ng$ -khei, fifty, is formed in a different way from the other higher numerals, and I am unable to analyse it.

There are apparently no generic prefixes. The word dang is sometimes added to the numeral, but I cannot ascertain the meaning of it. Thus, ha-meng ma-chā a-madang, goat young one, a kid; rūpā ma-ri-dang, four rupees. It is perhaps an indefinite particle; compare khara and khara-dang, some, a few, and Kachin (Bhamo district) mam dang ma-sum dang rai-nga-ai, rice baskets three about may-be, there may be about three baskets of rice.

The numerals follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are added to them, and not to the qualified noun.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,— $ai, i-h\bar{a}k, I. \qquad nang, na-h\bar{a}k, \text{ thou.} \qquad m\bar{a}, ma-h\bar{a}k, \text{ he, she, it.} \\ ai-gi, i, \text{my.} \qquad nang-gi, na, \text{ thy.} \qquad m\bar{a}-gi, ma, \text{ his, her, its.} \\ Plural,—$ $ai-khoi, \text{ we.} \qquad na-khoi, \text{ you.} \qquad ma-khoi, \text{ they.} \\ ai-khoi-gi, \text{ our.} \qquad na-khoi-gi, \text{ your.} \qquad ma-khoi-gi, \text{ their.}$

The forms $i-h\bar{a}k$, $na-h\bar{a}k$, and $ma-h\bar{a}k$ are used in a honorific sense. Special terms may be used in addressing the Rājā, etc. The ordinary case suffixes are added to the

personal pronouns. $Ngon-d\bar{a}$ is used instead of $d\bar{a}$, to. Thus, $na-h\bar{a}k-ki$, thy; $ai-ngon-d\bar{a}$, me-to, etc. The short forms i, na, and ma are the possessive pronouns; thus, $i-p\bar{a}$, my father; $na-p\bar{a}-gi$ $yum-d\bar{a}$, thy-father's house-in. They are often preceded by the genitive of the personal pronoun; thus, nang-gi na-ming, thee-of thy-name, thy name; $m\bar{a}-gi$ ma-chan, him-of his-sister, his sister. Sometimes the genitive is used alone; thus $ma-h\bar{a}k-ki$ $la\bar{u}-buk-t\bar{a}$, his fields-to. The pronoun $m\bar{a}$ has apparently a very wide use in the formation of substantives. Thus we find ma-pham, place; ma-tam, time; $ma-y\bar{a}m$, multitude. It seems to give a more definite sense to the word and occurs in phrases such as ma-tam $a-du-d\bar{a}$, time that-at.

Demonstrative pronouns.— A-si and ma-si, this; a-du and ma-du, that. The plural is formed by adding sing.

There are no Relative pronouns. The relative participle ending in $b\bar{a}$ is used instead. Thus, lai- $p\bar{a}k$ a-du- $d\bar{a}$ lai- $b\bar{a}$ mi ama-bu tin-na-ru- $r\bar{e}$, country that-in living man one (he) joined; iroi a-du ma-kok thang- $b\bar{a}$ ma- $s\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{a}i$ -bok a- $m\bar{a}$, buffalo that its-head towards-being body half one, the part of the body of the buffalo which was towards the head. The pronoun a-du, that, is usually added as a kind of correlative. Thus, ai-gi lai-ri- $b\bar{a}$ pum-na-mak a-du, mine being all that, all that I have.

The Interrogative pronouns are kanā or kanā-no, who? karī, what? kari-gi-no and kari-na-no, why? kayā, how many? etc. Kari-na-no, why? is often used where we would say 'because.'

Indefinite pronouns.—Khara and khara-dang, some; kanā-gumbā, whom like, somebody; karī-gumbā, what like, something; kanā ama-ta, no one, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs are not inflected in person and number. In one instance the possessive pronoun precedes the verb. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ ma-to-matā ma-chāi, he alone hiseating (-took-place), he alone ate.

There is often no difference between the present and past times. The root alone seems occasionally to be used to denote both; thus, nang oi, thou art; ma-yāma $d\bar{a}$ pi, his-elder-brother-to (he) gave. But generally one of the suffixes i, \bar{i} , \bar{e} , ni, li, $l\bar{i}$, and $l\bar{e}$ are added. I or \bar{i} is the common assertive suffix and is used both in the present and in the past; thus, chā-i, he eats; ai-nā phū-i, I strike; pok-i, were borne; hang-i, he asked; $chup-\bar{i}$, he kissed. The suffix \bar{e} is commonly used to denote the past; thus, $n\bar{i}ng-\bar{e}$, he wished; $l\bar{a}k-\bar{e}$, he came, he has come. The suffixes ni, li, $l\bar{i}$, and $l\bar{e}$ are perhaps compound forms, consisting of la and the suffixes i and \bar{e} . The meaning of lacannot be ascertained. Thus, ai-gi-ni, it is mine; ai chat-li, I go; phang-lī, they are receiving; sī-gā-dau-rī, I am dying; san sel-lī, cattle he-is-grazing; chat-lī, he went; woi-d-rē, I have not yet become; ai-nā phū-rē, I struck, I have struck; ai chat-lē, I went, I have gone. Mr. Primrose mentions several other suffixes such as khī, khī-ē, khi-ri, khrē, lui, luē, lu-rē, la-ri, la-rē, lammi, lammē, lam-li and lam-lē. It will be seen that all of them contain some of the suffixes mentioned in the foregoing, preceded by some new element. The prefixed syllables are kha or khi, lu, la, and lam. All these forms are compound verbs, but they may be dealt with in this place because we are unable to see the exact meaning of the modifying additions. Kha, khi, is said to have reference to something immediate; thus, hao-khi-bā, away, from hao-bā, to start; kēmkhi-bā, fallen off, from kēm, to fall; si-kha-rē, or si-khrē, died, etc. Khrē has often the meaning of completed action; thus, tau-khrē, I have done. Lu apparently refers the action to the past time or to a distant place; thus, tīn-na-ru-rē, went and joined; sī-ru-ra-bā-da-gī, after his having died. The suffix la seems to refer to the past time. It occurs, in the form ra, in the instance just quoted. Lam occurs as a noun meaning 'way,' 'manner,' etc. We find it as a verbal suffix in forms such as ai- $n\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{u}$ -ram- $l\bar{c}$, I had struck; ai lai-rammi, I was (Imperfect), etc.

In interrogative sentences a form ending in $ba-g\bar{e}$ is often used; thus, nang-gi naming kari $kau-ba-g\bar{e}$, thee-of thy name what called-is? sa-gol a-si chahi $ka-y\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}-ra-ba-g\bar{e}$, horse this years how-much amount? how old is this horse? etc. Compare future.

A kind of *Present definite* is effected by combining the participle in da- $n\bar{a}$ with some verb meaning 'to be'; thus, tong-da- $n\bar{a}$ lai, riding he is, he is riding. But we also find forms such as ai- $n\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{i}$, I am striking; ai- $n\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{u}$ -ram- $l\bar{i}$, I was striking.

The suffix \bar{e} , or a word ni, probably meaning 'to be,' is generally added. Thus, ai oiga-ni, I shall be; $h\bar{a}i$ -ru- $kh\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{e}$, I will go and say; ma-puk thal-han- $g\bar{e}$ $h\bar{a}i$ -du- $n\bar{a}$ $n\bar{i}ng$ - \bar{e} , his-belly (he) will-fill saying (he) wished, he wished to fill his belly. The last instance shows how this form is used as an infinitive of purpose. Still more is this the case in sentences such as ai- $n\bar{a}$ $k\bar{e}n$ - $g\bar{e}$ $k\bar{e}n$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{a}$, I fall-will fell-not, I did not fall in order to fall, it was not my intention to fall; $s\bar{i}$ - $g\bar{a}$ -dau- $r\bar{i}$, I am dying, lit. die-will-prepare.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are u and lu. Thus, $p\bar{u}l$ -u, bind; $p\bar{\imath}$ -yu and $p\bar{\imath}$ - $b\bar{\imath}$ -yu, give; chat-lu, go; so-kat-lu, draw. In the third person sanu is added; thus, chat-sanu, let him go. This form is a compound, the latter part being the imperative of san- $b\bar{a}$ or sal- $b\bar{a}$, to let, to allow. The suffix of the imperative of the first person plural is si; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -ra-si, let us eat; khal-la-si, let us use.

The suffix of the negative imperative is ga-nu; thus, kak-that-pi-ga-nu, don't cut; chat-ka-nu, don't go; chat-ka-nu-si, don't let us go; tau-bi-ra-ga-nu, please don't do so

The suffix $b\bar{a}$ or $p\bar{a}$ is used to form Infinitives. The real meaning of this suffix seems to be somewhat the same as that of the Tibetan pa or ba. It is used to form the relative participle and is also added in order to form verbal nouns. Thus, $na-h\bar{a}k-ki$ $na-ch\bar{a}-ni$ $h\bar{a}i-b\bar{a}$ ai-bu $ma-t\bar{i}k$ $woi-dr\bar{e}$, thee-of thy-son-am to say me-concerning fitness is-not, it is not proper to call me thy son; $ai-n\bar{a}$ $ph\bar{u}-b\bar{a}$ ngammi, I can strike; $oi-b\bar{a}$ $y\bar{a}i$, I may be; $isai-sak-p\bar{a}$, song-singing. The suffix $b\bar{a}$ is often preceded by na-na, and this form is used as an infinitive of purpose; thus, $\bar{o}k$ $ma-y\bar{a}m$ $s\bar{e}n-na-na-b\bar{a}$, swine herd tending for, in order to tend pigs. The infinitive of purpose may also be expressed by means of the future; see above.

Postpositions are often added to the verbal noun in $b\bar{a}$, and in this way adverbial clauses are formed. Thus, $ma\text{-}chin\text{-}ma\text{-}n\bar{a}o\ lan\ y\bar{e}n\text{-}na\text{-}ba\text{-}d\bar{a}$, elder-brother-younger-brother property dividing-in, when the brothers divided the property; $nu\text{-}mit\ ma\text{-}ng\bar{a}$ $ta\text{-}r\bar{a}k\text{-}ni\ lai\text{-}ra\text{-}ba\text{-}d\bar{a}$, days five six having-been-in, when some days had passed; $m\bar{a}ng\text{-}lu\text{-}ra\text{-}ba\text{-}da\text{-}gi$, lost-having-been-after, after he had been lost; $ma\text{-}ch\bar{a}\ pok\text{-}la\text{-}ba\text{-}di$, if young ones were born; sit-pa-gi, blowing-from, while it blows; chat-ka-da-ba-gi thau-rang tau-ri, going-future-of preparation make, I am arranging to go; $l\bar{a}k\text{-}pa\text{-}mak\text{-}ta\text{-}d\bar{a}$, as soon as he came; $phang\text{-}la\text{-}ba\text{-}n\bar{a}$, because he found, etc.

The form ending in $b\bar{a}$ can apparently also be used to denote present and past times of the verb. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ -gi damak $ch\bar{a}k$ khāng- $b\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{i}$ - $b\bar{a}$, his sake-for (thou) feast gavest. But more commonly ni is added in this sense; thus, tau-ba-ni, it has been done; phang-la-ba-ni, he is found again; $k\bar{e}n$ - $b\bar{a}$ -ni, I am falling, etc.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns. Adverbial participles may be formed by adding suffixes or postpositions to the verbal noun ending in $b\bar{a}$. Often, however, the various forms of the verbs are used in the

same way as the verbal noun. Thus, chat-li-ngai-da, went-time-at, at the time of going; thap-nā lai-ri-ngai-nā, far-off being-time-at, when he was far off; thu-nā, quickly; harāo-nung-ngai-nā, with joy and gladness; nu-mit khara lai-ra-ga, days some being, after some days; hai pāl-la-gā, fruits produced-with, when fruits shall have been produced. The participle ending in $ga-da-b\bar{a}$ (negative $loi-da-b\bar{a}$) is a relative participle or gerund, referring to the future time. Thus, ai-nā phang-ga-da-bā (phang-loida-bā) lan-saruk, me-by to-be-got (not-to-be-got) property-share, the share of the property which I shall (shall-not) receive; ai-khoi ha-rāo-nung-ngāi-ga-da-bā ma-tīk woi, we glad-happy-future-being fitness is, it is proper that we should be glad and happy. Compare Relative pronouns. The suffix of the Conjunctive participle is da-nā or du-nā. Thus, ai-nā hau-gat-tu-nā ai-gi i-pā-gi ma-nāk-tā hāi-ru-khī-gē, I arising me-of myfather's his-presence-in say-will, I will arise and go and say to my father; lan pum-nāmak khom-jī-la-du-nā pu-du-nā a-rāp-pā lai-pāk a-ma-dā chat-thok-i, property all-even gathering carrying far country one-to (he) went; ma-nāo a-du-nā sing-bā hēn-da-nā, his younger-brother that clever excelling, his younger brother was more clever and, yēn-na-da-nā chā-ra-si, dividing let us eat. This participle of the verb hāi, to sav, is often used in connection with a future in order to express the purpose of an action. Thus, sing oi-na-ga-ni hāi-da-nā, fuel be-will saying, in order to make fuel. The words sing oi-na-ga-ni must be considered as a kind of substantive clause, and also other tenses than the future may be used in this way. Thus, ma-yāma-gi san ma-chin-nā tau-ba-ni hāi-du-nā, his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by done-was saying, saying that it had been done by the mouth of the elder brother's cattle. Note the possessive pronoun of the third person, ma-yāma, his brother.

There is no Passive voice. Ai-bu phū-i, I was struck, means literally 'me he struck,' or 'me-concerning striking-took-place.'

Compound verbs are freely used. Causatives are formed by adding hal or han; thus, set-hal-lu, cause-him-to-put-on; sing-hal-li, caused to make good; thal-han-gē, he will cause to be full, etc. The verb pi, give, seems to be used in a transitive sense; thus, nung-sī-bī-rē, pitied; sī-bī-yu, be pleased to put on, etc. Cha means that the action is performed by oneself. Thus, chat-cha-ru-khi-gē, I will go and do the thing myself (cha) some way off (ru). Kat or gat, occurs in hīng-gat-lak-pā-ni, alive-again-come-has; hau-gat-tu-nā, having arisen. Lāk, to come, is found in compounds such as nīng-sīng-lāk-tu-nā, to-remember-beginning; pu-rāk-tu-nā, carrying-coming, bringing. Na denotes mutuality; thus, yei-na-bā, to strike each other, to fight. Thok, to occur, is used in many compounds, apparently without altering the meaning; thus, chat-thok-i, went away; hāi-thok-i, said, ordered, etc. It sometimes forms causatives; thus, chen-thok-pā, to drive away. Yām-ba, much, is added in vā-yām-i, it is troublesome, etc.

The Negative particle is da or ta. Thus, phatta-bā, good-not, bad; $p\bar{\imath}$ -ja-dē, that is $p\bar{\imath}$ -ja-da-ē, gave not; $h\bar{\imath}k$ -thok-tē, disobeyed not, etc. Another negative is loi; thus, tau-roi, will not do; chat-loi, will not go. The initial l seems to assimilate itself to a preceding consonant; thus, chang-ngoi, will not enter. This negative is especially used in a future sense.

The *Interrogative particle* is no; see Interrogative pronouns. In disjunctive questions, where no interrogative pronoun is used, the suffix ra is added. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ $l\bar{a}k$ -pra $l\bar{a}k$ -ta-bra, has he come or not?

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

3 . *

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

MANIPURĪ OR MEITHEI.

SPECIMEN I.

(The Rev. Wm. Pettigrew, 1896.)

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

I WHO THE HOLD CHIM OF THE PART I मिल्लाका माधाकार मह क्यारे मिलेल नेम, लेक ! कारे हे मे लेक रू रू लहान 西湖 新知中三年 四十四年 江西湖南 中山市 5 HO DO D TO BEINN MAN JZ Z Z Z Z 2 1 写和16 四日 子田市 北美 四八字 四次的 芝州里 田田州 日午四日四月7711 邢京井 西州河 EHHY KY 768四日 用图工 图书中书题 英山町 西沙河 大井町 大江中日, 北河中南 क्षण में हे मामकड्गी मिसामा क्षेत्र मेंग्ड रमलेक कर्मेंग हैंगा मन कमार 利二中國田。 年》四日 市里 四十四十十年 मनक । मार्थ स्टेड कि मार्थिस क्रिये प्राचित

[No. I.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

MANIPURĪ OR MEITHEI.

SPECIMEN I.

(The	e Rev. Wm.	Pettigrew,	1896.)			(Stat	TE, MANIPUR.)
	Mi	a-ma-gi	ma-chā	i 3	ni-pā	a-ni	lai-rammi.
	Man	one-of	his- $chil$	d	male	two	were.
	Ma-bungā-ni-	·gi	ma-rak-tā	ma-r		a-tom-b	
	Both-of		midst- in	his-s	son	younge	r that-by
	ma-pā-dā	hāi,	' Pā-bā,	ai-nā	phang-g		lan saruk
	his- $father$ - to	said,	' Father,	me- by	to-be-re	-	property share
	a-du	ai-ngon-dā		-		lu-dā	ma-pā-nā
	that	me- to	give-p	lease.'	Then	eupon	his-father-by
5.	ma-khoi	a-ni	0	da-mak		lan-thum	•
	them	two		sake-for		property	divided.
	Nu-mit	khara	lai-ra-gā		-não	a-tom-l	
	Day	some	were-when		-son	younge	
	lan	pum-nā-m		jil-la-du-		pu-du-nā	a-rā p -pā
	property	all	•	thering		carrying	far
	lai-pāk	a-ma-dā		-thok-i.	М	a-pham <i>Place</i>	a-du-dā that-in
	country	one-to		ent.			
	lam-chat		tta-ba-ni-nā		ma-rai		pu m-nā- mak <i>all</i>
	behaviour		bad-with		<i>his-substa</i> : a-d		tum-khra-ba-dā
10.	māng-lē.	$egin{array}{c} { m Lan} \\ { m \it Property} \end{array}$	$egin{array}{c} ext{pum-nar{s}} \ al \end{array}$		the		wasted-being-in
	lost-was.						
	lai-pāk	a-du-dā	yām- exceedi		tang-nga		$ ang$ -ngam-bā $ extit{dearth}$
	country	that-in		-		was , Wā-rak-pā	
	a-du-dā	mā-nā		:ak-lē. ed-became		Distress	that-in
	that-in	him-by				mi	a-ma-bu
	mā-nā	lai-pāk	a-du-d that-i		lai-bā <i>living</i>	man	
	him- by	country				ok	ma-yām
	tīn-na-ru-rē.	1	Ma-hāk-nā	100	ā-bu h <i>im</i>	pig	herd
	joined.		Him-by			thā-i.	Ma-pham
15.	sēn-na-na-bā	· ma	-hāk-ki	laŭ-bu field		sent.	Place
	pasture-to		his	jieia	8-016	30,000	F

मार्थ मेर के कि मार्थ मार्थ मार मेग है। मार्गान क्ष्यान क्ष्यान क्ष्यान क्ष्यान क्ष्यान 四四 田田水中 安田一山山 四日日八十年以外 कि क लाम है भी राज र मार्थ के कार के कि र्लेक मारे मारे मारे मारे मारे मारे मारे माजमेण देख, क्यांक गायह माहम काला 产用分子 MANMENT 田田区 KINYTOE कार्यक भ्राम्यक स्ट्राम्स क्षेत्र क्ष्मा भ्राप्त मार्क क्षेत्रक क्षेत्र कि विश्व कि क्षेत्र के 25 स्था, क्रिक्ट के मिला के लागा मिला मारिक इतम इतम हता कित्र मार्च मार्च मिंगिलिं; इन्क्रिया दहेन कमिल्मिहे WHSIXI EMMINDY FUE KING TO मार्थ प्रिक्र में मिरुस मिरुस मार्थ केम्प्रियो केमार् 30 है M? डेमेरे मा भेष्य मा मे मे किए गा मिया द्वा मिया माना माना माना निया में मुमाने च्यूने नामे लागा क्यूटे के आहे म् प्रमा का ता में है त्यार गए हैं हम्मा 'पार्थ, प्पाम मुक्षा कि कार्य द्वा हम्म प्रका म्या मूक्षा.

						2000.04
	a-du-dā	mā-nā	ok-ki		(cheng-chāk)	
	that-in	him- by	pigs'	fe	pod	husks-with
	ma-puk	thal-han-gē		i-du-nā	ning-ngē	
	his-belly	$\mathit{fill} ext{-}\mathit{will}$		aying	wished;	but
	ka-nā	a-ma-ta-nā	mā-ngon-d	-	pi-ja-dē.	Mā-du-dā
	any	one-by	him-to		himself-not.	Thereon
	mā-nā	ma-puk-nun	_	ning-sing-la		hāi, 'Ai-gi said, 'Me-of
	him-by	his-heart-		to-recollect-b		
20.	i-pā-gi		ma-nāi-sing-			n-thok-pā-thok-nā
	my-father-q	of .	his-servants-			ough-overflowing
	chin-chāk	phang-li,	a-du-gā		ma-pha	
	food	getting-are,	but	me- by	-	
	[chāk-]iām		si-ga-dau-ri.		i-nā	hau-gat-tu-nā
	hunger-u		dying-am.		e-by	arising
	ai-gi	i-pā-g		ma-nāk-tā his- <i>presence-i</i>	· ·	hāi-ru-[khi-]gē, say-go-will,
	me-of	my-father		_	on-thok-tu	
	" pā-bā,	swarga-l heaven-fr		māi face	turning	
	" $father$,				-	4000 4400
25.	tau-rē,	na-hāk-ki thee-of		a-mäng-da-su <i>presence-in-al</i>	-	•
	done-have,		•		ai-bu	ma-tik
	na-hāk-ki	na-chā thy-son		hāi-bā saying	me-to	fitness.
	thee-of				ı-nāi	
	woi-d-rē has-not-bec	,	a-hāk-ki <i>thee-of</i>		servant	a-mā-gum-nā <i>one-as</i>
			A-du-da-gi		ā-nā	hau-gat-tu-nā
	tham-bi-yu make-pleas		That-after		n-by	arising
	ma-hāk-ki			chat-li.	Mā-du	
	ma-nak-ki	ma-pā his-father	towards	went.	The	
-20			ma-hāk-ki		ıa-pā-nā	ma-hāk-pu
30.	lai-ring-ng remaining-		him-of		father-by	him
	u-ra-du-na		·si-bi-rē,	a-ma-su		chen-sin-khi-du-nā
	seen-having		sion-had,	and		running-towards
	mā-gi	ngaksam	No. 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 10	on-du-nā	mā-bu	chup-i
	his	neck		nbracing	him	kissed.
	Chup-pā	a-du-dā	ma-chā	ni-pā	a-du-nā	mā-ngon-dā
	Kissing	that-in	his-child	male	that-by	him-to
	hāi,	' Pā-bā,	swa	rga-bu	māi	on-thok-tu-nā
	said,	'Father,		en-from	face	turning
35	pāp	AC 2501 AA 100 - 100 - 1	-hāk-ki	na-māng-d	a-su	pāp tau-rē,
50.			hee-of	thy-presence	7	sin done-have,
						F 2

10 भी वर्षा प्रमान हत्त्व । या मेर या वर व्याप्त र्मेर्भाषण में केंद्र में किए प्राण्याचित W·大山田 西西海 中国 西西山 40 Kingx my www will was we way of the way ल्यामान द्वाक के कि विकास मार्थित वा श्वास मार्थित M क मार दारे प्रकड क्रियत १० भाषा क्षामा भी मार्थ हे महा कि कि कि कि कि मार्ष्य अभाग कम्मेक्ट इंडडहा । मुर्गेय 45 मा का के जिसे कि की का जिला मार्थम कर्ष्य मार्थमाथमा मार्थ कर्षेट्र इडक्ष इवस्था इक्स्प्र इक्स्प्र इस्पे में रहम प्राम्ह अवस्ता माना मिंग का = X angle wash wrotan sauge were कार भाषा का मार्थ के प्राप्त के त्या का भाग क हार प्रश्नायह के मिल्य मेर हम हिला है जा टिक्टरेक दूर कुम्प के क्षा के हिम्म के माध्य प्य मिलाय कड्य इभ्र द्रहरू म्या मुक्सिश्वा म्यांम मार्गिय प्रथायि 55 राष्ट्र समा 6मा 9 म. प्राच्ये प्राप्त के आकर ३६

	na-hāk-ki thee-of	na-chā-ni thy-son-am	hāi-bā saying		na-tik Itness	woi-d-rē.' is-not.'
	A-du-gā	ma-pā-nā		na-nāi-sing-d		hāi-thok-i,
	But	his-father-by		is-servants-t		said,
	'Khwāi-da-gi	h ēn-n ā	pha-bā	phi th	ıu-nā	pu-rak-tu-nā
	' All-than	more	good	cloth qu	ickly	bringing
	sēt-hal-lu;	a-ma-su	ıng	ma-hāk		ma-khut-tā
	to-wear-cause;			him-q		his-hand-on
40.	khudom ring	a-mā si-su one also	si-bi-yu; put ;	ma-kho <i>his-fo</i>	0	khugrāng-su sandals-also
	up-pi-yu;	ai-khoi	harāo-nung-	•		-chā-mi-na-si,
	put-on;	we	joy-happines			-together-let-us,
	ka-ri-na-nō	hai-ba-bu	ı, a	i-gi	i-chā	a-si
	why?	said- is - if	, n	re-of	my-80	n this
	si-ru-ra-b		0.0	t-lak-pa-ni	;	a-ma-sung
	died-far-off-had	ving-after	alive- a	gain-came ;		and
	māng-lu-ra	•	a-muk	-	a-ba-ni.'	Mā-du-dā
	lost-far-off-l		again	found	-was.'	The reupon
45.	ma-khoi-nā		a-rāo-nung-ng	•		
	them-by		ejoice-make-n			
	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{Ma} ext{-tam} \ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & $	a-du-dā that-at	ma-hāk-ki him-of	ma-chā his-son	a-ha elde	- " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " " "
			•		47.00.00	
1	lau-buk-tā <i>fields-in</i>	lai-rammi. <i>vas</i> .	Lāk-tu Comi		āk-tu-nā <i>coming</i>	yum-dā <i>house-to</i>
	thung-la-ba-da	i isai	s	ak-pa-gi		ma-khol-su
	reaching-in	song	8	inging-of		its-sound-also
	jagoi-sā-ba-gi	ma-kl		tā-du		ma-nāi
	${\it dancing-of}$	its-sour		hear	ing	his-servant
50.	ni-pā	a-ma-bu	kau-du-n	201	ang-i,	'Ka-ri-gi
	male	one	calling		sked,	"What-of
	nīn-khongi-ba		Mā-nā		ngon-da	hāi,
	noise-is?'		Him-by	•	him-to	said,
	' Na-hāk-ki ' <i>Thee-of</i>	na-nāo thy-yo u nger-brothe	lāk-ē, r came,		a-sung ad	na-hāk-ki <i>thee-of</i>
	na-pā-nā	ma-hāk-pu	a-nā-yēk	lai-ta-		phang-la-ba-dā
	thy-father-by	him	sickness	witho	out	finding-in
	ehāk-khāng-b		du-dā	ma-hāk-r		são-ra-du-nã
	feast-given-h	as.' Ther	eupon	him-by		angry- $getting$
55.	im-ung	chang-ngoi	hāi-du-n		hāi.	Mā-duk-tā
	house-in	enter-will-not	saying		said.	Therefore

मिश्रेक माने किम्प्राप्त किंग्रेक ा भियाय श्रम्म स्थाय १० मा मा भी। किस गरी भी मा कि राम प्रमा । मुक्त बहुमार्थ काराने प्रमाव मिन्न 10 位置 (JA) 面型 (JA) 面型 (JA) म्मा मा म्यामा ते विकास कर कर महत्वर M 开版 医原原大公 户标》 开西 四形分 कार द्या हमा अं कार प्रमा कर दारा कर कथार्थ दिश्यमदाभाष्ठ द्रवाद्या 85 दिया अभाष लाय द कार के दे ००मर हेण्ड मा मिर पर गर भी मिर मर मालक का वा के। माला माला के कि का की प्रम, कर्म । द्यान स्टाम्स कर कर कर काराक दमला दें, क में हे का क्षा कर 10 Early mitted to an 1 क्षणामार्ध के प्राचित्रक क्षिक मि असेक पार्क प्राथम क्षा किया के के कि के क्षाक क्ष्म काला का बाड़ जा का लाकर राष्ट्रमाता कमाने में रवारेनामें 15 क्रम्ब हेरहडा ॥=

	ma-hāk-ki him-of	ma-pā-nā his-father-by	thok-la-du-nā <i>coming-out</i>	ma-hāk-pu <i>him</i>
	thēm-jil-lē.	A-du-gā	ma-hāk-nā	ma-pā-dā
	entreated.	But	him-by	his-father-to
	khum-i,	'Yēng-u,	chahi	a-sup-ta-gi
	answered,	Behold,	years	so-many-from
	na-nāi	lai-ri-bā a-s	i-nā na-hāk-ki	yā-thang-bu
	thy-servant		s-by thee-of	order
6 0.	khak	hik-thok-tē;	a-du-mak-pu	ai-gi
	ever	disobeyed-not;	that-even-considering	me-of
	i-rup <i>my-friends</i>	i-pāng-gā my-companions-with	harāo-mi[n]-na-bā rejoice-to	ngam-na-na-ba-gi enabling-of
	da-mak	a-muk-ta-su	ha-mēng ma-chā	a-ma-dang
	sake-for	even	goat its-young	one
	ai-ngon-dā	pi-dē ;	a-du-gā nang-gi	na-chā
	me- to	gavest-not;	but thee-of	thy-son
	a-si-di		ni-sing-gā	loi-na-du-nā
	this	harl	ots-with	living
65.	nang-gi	na-ran	hun-jēk-pa-bu	mā-nā
	thee-of	thy-property	$throwing ext{-}away ext{-}although$	him- by
	hēk-lāk-pa-	mak-ta-dā	$m\bar{a}$ -gi	da-mak
	arrives-a	s-800n-as	his	sake-for
	chāk-khāng	-bi-ri-bā.' Mā-du-	_	mā-ngon-dā
	feast-mad	le-hast.' Thereup	oon his-father-by	him-to
	hāi,	'Angāng,	nang-di	i-tat-tat-ta-nā
	said,	'Child,	thou	always
	ai-gā	lai-minnai ;	a-mā-hēk-su	ai-gi
	me-with	art-together;	and-also	my
70.	lai-ri-bā	pum-na-m	ak a-du	nang-gi-ni.
	being	all	that	thine-is.
	$\mathbf{A} ext{-}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{u} ext{-}\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{a}}$	ai-khoi		o-nung-ngāi-ga-da-bā
	But	we	rej	oi ci ng-happy-being
	ma-tik	woi;	. ka-ri-na-no	hāi-ba-bu,
	fitness	is;	why?	said- is - if ,
	nang-gi	na-nāo	a-si	si-ru-ra-ba-da-gi
	thee-of	thy-younger-brother	this	dead-being-after
	hing-gat-la	_	a-ma-sung	māng-lu-ra-ba-da-gi
	alive-again-	come-has;	and	lost-being-after
75.	amuk p again	phang-la-ba-ni.' found-is.'		•

[No. 2.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

MANIPURĪ OR MEITHEI.

Specimen II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN DOWN FROM THE MOUTH OF AN OLD MANIPURI.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ma-māngai-dā ni-pā a-ma-nā ma-chā ni-pā a-ni pok-i. Nu-mit kharā Formerly one-by his-child male two born-were. Dayssomelai-ra-gā ma-pā a-du iroi amom a-mā kaboi pām-bi a-mā remaining their-father that buffalo female one pomegranate plantonekāng-khal a-mā a-si tha-nam-da-nā si-kha-rē. Ma-chin-ma-nāo lan yēn-na-ba-dā curtainone this left-having died.**Brothers** propertydividing-in a-du-nā sing-bā ma-não hēn-da-nā iroi a-du ma-kok thang-bā cunning his-younger-brother that-by more-being buffalothatits-head towards ma-sā khāi-bok a-mā ma-yāma-dā pi-ra-gā ma-mai thang-bā a-du his-elder-brother-to half its-body-of one giving its-tail towardsthatmā-nā lau-i. Kaboi a-du-su ma-khong-lom-gi khāi-bok a-mā him-by takes.**Pomegranate** that-also its-foot-from half one ma-yāma-dā pi-ra-gā ma-nā ma-ton thang-ba a-du lau-i. Käng-khal his-elder-brother-to giving him-by its-top towards that takes. Curtain mā-nā lau-ra-gā nung-thin a-du-su ahing ma-yāma-dā pi. Iroi that-also at-night him-by taking at-day his-elder-brother-to gives. Buffalo a-du-nā mi-gi yēn-sāng-nā-pi chā-ru-ra-ba-dā ma-yama-gi san ma-chin-nā men-of vegetableseating-in his-elder-brother's cattle its-mouth-by that-by hāi-da-nā tau-ba-ni mā-bu sing-hal-li, a-du-gā ma-chā pok-la-ba-di done-is saying him to-make-good-caused, andits-young born-if mā-nā lau-i, a-du-gā sangom-su mā-nā chāi Kaboi a-du-su ma-hai him-by takes, and milk-also him-by eats. Pomegranate that-also its-fruits pāl-la-gā mā ma-tomatā mā chā-i. borne-when healone he eats.

Asum-dau-nā nu-mit ma-ngā ta-rūk-ni lai-ra-ba-dă Thus-doing daysfive sixpassing lai-kāi-nā tāk-pi-ra-da-nā ma-yāmā a-du-nā nongmā sing people of the quarter-by advised-having his-elder-brother that-by one-day fuel oi-na-ga-ni hāi-da-nā ka-boi a-du ma-khong-dā yan-thek-ke tau-ra-ba-dā saying be-will pomegranate thatits-foot-at cut-will doing-in

yēn-na-da-nā 'Hai chā-ra-si, hāi-da-nā a-du-nā, pāl-la-gā his-younger-brother that-by, 'Fruits borne-when dividing eat-let-us, saying a-du 'iroi wā-yām-i, mi-gi a-du-nā, hāi-ja-da-nā tok-lē. Ma-yāmā requesting stopped. His-elder-brother that-by, 'buffalo that troublesome-is, men-of hāi-da-nā, 'ma-yāi-thi-gāng-dā kak-that-kē,' hāi-da-nā chā-gal-li, yēn-sāng-nā-pi 'the-middle-in cut-will, saying eats-habitually, saying, vegetableslau-ra-si kak-thattau-ba-dā, 'sangom su, pok-lak-pa-su yēn-na-da-nā ma-chā take-let-us cut-'milk also, its-young born-also dividing doing-in, a-du-nā hāi-ja-ra-da-nā tok-lē. Kāng-khal a-du pi-ga-nu,' hāi-da-nā ma-não please-don't,' saying his-younger-brother that-by requesting stopped. Curtain tham-le; a-du-nā nung-thin-nu-mit-chup-pā ising-dā ting-da-nā ma-yāmā his-elder-brother that-by all-the-day water-in soaking kept; a-du-dā ma-não a-du-nā, 'thai-nā-thai-nā khal-la-si, tau-bi-ra-ga-nu,' use-let-us, do-please-don't,' 'alternately thereupon his-younger-brother that-by, a-du-su yā-da-nā a-si-gi hāi-da-nā hāi-ja-rē. A-du-dā ma-yāmā Thereupon his-elder-brother that-also agreeing this-of requested. saying ma-tung-dā khat-nā chai-nā lai-ta-nā ma-chin-ma-nāo pān-khi. quarrel dispute being-not the-brothers lived. its-back-at

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a man had two sons. After some time he died, leaving behind him a buffalo-cow, a pomegranate tree, and a curtain. When the two brothers proceeded to divide the property, the younger brother, who was the more clever of the two, arranged the matter in the following way. He gave the front part of the buffalo, including the head, to his elder brother, and retained himself the other half, from the tail and forwards. And he gave his brother the lower part of the pomegranate tree, and took himself the top. With regard to the curtain, he used it at night, and left it to his brother during day time. When the buffalo ate the crops of other people he made his brother give damages, because the outrage was done by the head, which belonged to the elder. But he claimed for himself the calves which were born, and the milk. And he also reserved the fruits of the pomegranate tree for himself.

In this way some time passed. The elder brother was advised by the neighbours, and one day he went to fell the pomegranate tree in order to get fuel. But the younger brother now proposed that they should divide the fruits between them, and thus prevented the felling of the tree. Now the elder brother declared that he would kill his part of the buffalo, because it gave him such trouble in eating the crops of other people. The younger brother then stopped him, saying that they might also take each his share of the milk and of the young buffaloes. Then the elder brother took the curtain and kept it during the day in water. The other then proposed that they should use the curtain alternately. Both agreed, and after that time they lived without quarrelling.

[No. 3.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

MANIPURĪ OR MEITHEI.

SPECIMEN III.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERA.)

A FOLKSONG.

Ching-dā Mountain-in	$egin{scale} \mathbf{sat} extbf{-}\mathbf{pa} \ & oldsymbol{blossomed} \end{aligned}$	ingēnâ-lai, parasite-flower,
Chin-na-tnā Suddenly	kēm-khi-bā fallen-has	pā-mu-ē. matter-of-regret.
Ai-nā <i>Me-by</i>	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{k}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\mathbf{n}\text{-}\mathbf{g}\bar{\mathbf{e}}\\ \boldsymbol{\mathit{fall-will}} \end{array}$	kēn-dē-dā, fall-not,
Mā-lāng-bā-nā Wind-by	sit-pā-gi blowing-because	kën-bā-ni. fallen-have.
Mā-lāng-bā Wind	$egin{aligned} \mathbf{ai\text{-}sung} \\ \mathbf{I\text{-}also} \end{aligned}$	kai-tau-dē nothing-do
Lai-rāng Flower's	lai-khâk lai-bā-gi stalk on-account-of	kēn-bā-ni. fallen-is.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The parasite-flower blossomed in the mountain. You are falling off without having been of use; it is a pity.

The flower answers,—I am not falling off of my own free will. I am falling because the wind blows.

The wind answers,—I, too, am doing nothing. The flower is falling because the strength of its stem is diminished.

LŪI.

The tribes Andro, Sengmai, and Chairel have been classed by Mr. Damant as belonging to the Kuki-Chin group. He says further about the Luis:—

'This term which means "slave or dependent," is applied by the Manipūri to three small tribes which inhabit the valley of Manipur; they are called Sengmai, Undro, and Chairel; all of them speak different dialects, but with a considerable mixture of Manipūri words. Their religion is Pagan, tinged by Hinduism. In dress and appearance they are hardly to be distinguished from Manipūri. The Sengmai have three villages, with 120 houses and a population of about 600; the Undro one village only, with 45 houses and a population of about 225. Of the Chairel, I have no exact statistics, but they have only two or three small villages. They are employed in making pottery and salt, and in distilling, occupations which the Manipūri despise.'

The Andro and Sengmai tribes claim, according to Major McCulloch, to have been the original inhabitants of the Manipur valley.

None of these dialects has been returned for the survey, and they have probably all disappeared. The vocabularies published by Major McCulloch show that they cannot belong to the Kuki-Chin group. But it has proved impossible to class them as belonging to any other group. There is apparently some connection with the Nāgā languages, especially with the eastern sub-group. But the materials available are not sufficient for a definite statement. The question must therefore be left open. But, in order to make it possible to compare the forms given by McCulloch with those occurring in other Tibeto-Burman languages, I have given them as an appendix to the Meithei list, because this language has, to a considerable extent, influenced the vocabulary of the Lūi dialects.

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STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN MEITHEI, ANDRO, SENGMAI, AND CHAIREL.

Eng	lish.			Meithei (M	anipu	r).	Andro (McCulle	och).		Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
1. One .				A-mā .			Hata		-		Ahul.
2. Two				A-ni .			Kingha			•••••	Ūhūl.
3. Three				A-hūm .			Shomha	•			Thung kong.
4. Four				Ma-ri .			Piha				Mu-ri kong.
5. Five				Ma-ngā .		•	Ngaha			•••	Ma-nga kong.
6. Six .				Ta-rūk .			Kokha				Lū kong.
7. Seven		•		Ta-rēt .			Siniha				Sini kong.
8. Eight				Ni-pān .		•	Chatha	•			Hûn ja.
9. Nine				Mā-pan .		•	Túhúha	•			Han ja.
0. Ten				Та-га .		•	Shēt	٠			Shurük.
1. Twenty				Kul .			Hol	•			Kun duk.
2. Fifty				Yāng-khai			Ngangji	•			Yangkei
3. Hundred				Chā-mā .			Chata	•			Cha.
4. I				Ai, i-hāk		•	Nga	•		Nga	Nga huk.
5. Of me				Ai-gi .							,
6. Mine	•			Ai-gi .			Nga ga				
7. We .	•			Ai-khoi .		٠				•••••	Ngi muk.
8. Of us	٠			Ai-khoi-gi			*** ***			*****	
9. Our .	٠			Ai-khoi-gi	٠						100
O. Thou	•			Nang, na-hāk		٠	Nang	٠		Nang	. Nang.
21. Of thee	•		•	Nang-gi .	•						
22. Thine		•		Nang-gi .		٠	Nang ga .				
23. You	•	•	•	Na-khoi		•					Ngo ukal.
24. Of you				Na-khoi-gi	•	•					

	En	glish.			Meithei (M	anipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
25	5. Your	•.	•		Nang-khoi-gi				
26	В. Не .				Mā, ma-hāk		Tik, i	Hēro, hē	Meng mű, meda.
27	. Of him		1		Mā-gi .		. Tik ga	Hē ga	
28	His .		•		Mā-gi .				
29	. They				Ma-khoi				Nūnū.
30	of them				Ma-khoi-gi				
31	I. Their				Ma-khoi-gi				
32	2. Hand			٠.	Khut .		Takhū	Tahū	Lak.
33	. Foot				Khong .		Taka	Tumpha	La.
34	. Nose				Nā-ton .		Sanaŭti	Sanung	Sunga.
35	. Еуе	. •			Mit .		Mit		Hun tũ.
36	. Mouth				Chin .		Shūn		Dū khwī.
37	. Tooth				Yā .		Sho	Shoa	Ya
38	Ear .				Nā-kong		Ка-па		Rīphī.
39	. Hair				Sam		Hūmi		Sam.
40	. Head				Kok		Hūrung		Ků
41	. Tongue				Lei				414.61
42	. Belly				Puk		Pāk		Phūk.
43	. Back	•			Namgan .		Loma	Lübal	Yangel.
44	. Iron				Yot		Sēn	Sēl	Thir.
45	. Gold	•			Sanā		Kundūnong		Sanna.
46	. Silver				Rūpā		On	Ngon	Rūpa.
47.	Father				Ма-ра		А-ра	А-ро	A-pha.
48.	Mother				Ма-та		A-mē		Au.
49.	Brother				Ma-yāmā (elde (younger).	r), ma-não	Pahū (elder), nasī (younger)	Apī (elder), nāsī (younger)	Ako (elder), na-na
50,	Sister				Ma-chem (elder (younger).), ma-chal		Apī (elder), chūl (younger)	(younger). Achū (elder), nā-sa
51,	Man				(younger). Mi, ni-pā .		(younger). Tiksa-hora	Tikhora	(younger).

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	Eng	lish.			Meithei (Mar	nipur).		Andro (McCulloch):	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
2.	Woman	•	• .		Nu-pi	٠.		Tiksa yahū		Thaloi.
3.	Wife			٠.	Ma-tu,				••••• z c.	
4.	Child		٠.		Angāng, ma-chā			·····	·	****
5.	Son .				Ma-chā ni-pā .			Saija hora	Sa hora	Na sa.
5. 1	Daughter	•			Ma-chā nu-pi .			Saija yahū	Sa yahū	Na sa nūpi.
7.	Slave				Mi nāi					
3.	Cultivator	r			Lau u-bā mi .				 :	
9.	Shepherd		•		Yāo sēn-bā mi					· ·
0.	God		•		Lāi	٠,		Surarel (A Manipuri god of the high heaven)	Lai	Lumpū.
1.	Devil			٠	Lāi			Lai saroi		
2.	Sun				Nu-mit			Cha-mit		Sal.
	Moon		•		Thā			Sa tha		Let.
Ŀ.	Star	.•			Tha-wān bi-chāk			Sangun si		Tawal pichak.
5.	Fire	•			Mai			Wal		Phul.
.	Water	. •			Ising (tu-ren, riv	er) .		Ме		Di.
7.	House				Yum			Kem		Him.
8.	Horse .				Sa-gol			Shūrūk		La tarau.
9.	Cow		•		Sal, san-bi			Sok	Ngo	Sa mūk,
0.	Dog				Húi			Кі		Hwi.
1.	Cat .		•		Hau-dong .			Hunggen	Huljik	Handong.
2.	Cock	•			Yēl lā-bā .			Ū (hen)		Phū (hen).
3.	Duck	. •			Ngā-nū					· · · ·
4.	Ass .	. •	;		Gādhā					
5.	Camel		(ii)		Ūt					
6.	Bird				U-chek			Ūjik sa		Phū.
7.	Go .	.•			Chat-lu		٥.	Shai	Sare	A-ka-de,
8.	Eat .				Chā-ru			Shai	Sarē	Sēdē.

English.		Meithei (Manipu	ır).	Andro (McCulloc	h).	Sengmai (McCullo	ch).	Chairel (M	eCulloch).
79. Sit		Pham-u .		Tongtē		Thongdē .		Tongde.	
30. Come		Lāk-u		Liyek		Lide		Hongde.	
Bl. Beat		Phù .		Tantē		Tande		Dhukde.	
82. Stand .		Lēppu		Chaptē				Chopde.	
83. Die	٠.	Si-ru		Sidai		Shide		Thidi.	
84. Give		Pi-u .		Ītē		Îre		Nümde.	
85. Run .		Chen-u		Kate	. ,			Pingde.	
86. Up		Mathak							••••
87. Near .		A-nak-pā .		Thamo		Thumo		Anakpa.	
88. Down		Ma-khā . •							
89. Far		A-thāp-pā		Lam jeo .		Lam jau		Anappa.	
90. Before .		Ma-mäng-dä .							••••
91. Behind .	· · ·	Ma-tung-dā .		·····					
92. Who .	•	Kanā			٠	ĺ			·····
93. What .		Ka-ri .		·					
94. Why	• .	Ka-ri-gi-no	: .	Haninga ga		Mēkara		Tisika.	
95. And .	٠.	Aduga							
96. But .		Aduga							•••••
97. If		Ba-di (a verbal suf	jix) .						
98. Yes		Hoi		Hoi		Hau		Da ne.	
99. No	; · .	Na-tē		Noko		Noo		Dade maie.	
00. Alas		I-māi-pē-mā, an-tha	ak-pā .						····
01. A father .		Ма-ра а-та		·					••••
02. Of a father		Ма-ра а-та-ді		·				3	•••••
03. To a father	•	Ма-ра а-та-да	. :						•• •••
04. From a father	•	Ma-pā a-ma-da-gi			· .				••••
05. Two fathers		Ма-ра а-пі						.	

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
06. Fathers	Ma-pā sing			
07. Of fathers	Ma-pā sing-gi	·		
08. To fathers	Ma-pā sing-dā			
9. From fathers	Ma-pā sing-da-gi	<u>.</u>		· ·····
0. A daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi a-mā			
1. Of a daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-gi .			
2. To a daughter	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-dā .		*****	
3. From a daughter .	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ma-da-gi .			
4. Two daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi a-ni			
5. Daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing		·····	
6. Of daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-gi .			
7. To daughters	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-dā .			
8. From daughters .	Ma-chā nu-pi sing-da-gi .			
9. A good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-mā			
0. Of a good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-gi			
21. To a good man	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-dā		•	
22. From a good man .	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ma-da-gi	·····		*#***1
33. Two good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā a-ni	·····		
24. Good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing			
5. Of good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-gi			
6. To good men	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-dā	•••••		
7. From good men .	A-pha-bā ni-pā sing-da-gi .			
8. A good woman	A-pha-bā nu-pi a-mā			
9. A bad boy	Pha-ta-bā ni-pā ma-chā a-mā.	A-kumo (bad)	A-kurmo (bad)	Mei-kho (bad).
0. Good women	A-pha-bā nu-pi sing	 .		
31. A bad girl	Pha-ta-bā nu-pi ma-chā a-mā.	·····		
2. Good	A-pha-bā	Kumo	Kurmo	Meinec.

	Engl	isb.			Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
133.	Better				A-ni-da-gi hēn-nā pha-bā .			
134.	Best				A-khwāi-da-gi hēn-nā pha- bā.			
35.	High				A-wāng-bā	Choko	Pau	Awangba.
36.	Higher				A-ni-da-gi hēn-nā wāng-bā	·	•••••	*** ***
37.	Highest				A-khwāi-da-gi hēn-nā wāng-bā.			
38.	A horse		•		Sa-gol lā-bā a-mā			
39.	A mare				Sa-gol amom a-mā			
40.	Horses		٠,		Sa-gol lā-bā ma-yām			
41.	Mares				Sa-gol amom ma-yām .			
42.	A bull				Sal lā-bā a-mā			
43.	A cow				Sal amom a-mā			
44.	Bulls				Sal lā-bā ma-yām ·			
45.	Cows				Sal amom ma-yām			
46.	A dog				Hūi lā-bā a-mā			
47.	A bitch				Hūi amom a-mā			
48.	Dogs				Hūi lā-bā ma-yām . •			
49.	Bitches				Hūi amom ma-yām	·		
50.	A he goat				Hā-mēng lā-bā a-mā .	Kēmēk (a goat)		Kel (a goat).
51.	A female	goat	•		Hā-mēng amom a-mā .			
52.	Goats				Hā-mēng ma-yām			
53.	A male de	er		٠.	Sa-ngāi lā-bā a-mā .			
54.	A female	deer		٠.	Sa-ngāi amom a-mā			
55.	Deer	•			Sa-ngāi	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
56.	I am				Ai oi			
57.	Thou art				Nang oi			
58.	He is		•		Mā oi			
59.	We are				Ai-khoi oi			

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
160. You are	Na-khoi oi			
161. They are	. Ma-khoi oi		·	
162. I was	. Ai oi-ram-i			
163. Thou wast	Nang oi-ram-i			·····
154. He was	Mā oi-ram-i			*******
165. We were	Ai-khoi oi-ram-i		B	1 ₋ ,
166. You were	Na-khoi oi-ram-i			
167. They were	Ma-khoi oi-ram-i	······		
168. Be	Оі-u	Chai	Wai-thau-rē	Leide.
169, To be	Oi-na-na-bā, oi-bā	*****		
170. Being	Oi-du-nā	•••••		
171. Having been	Oi-ra-du-nā, oi-khi-du-nā .			· 4-
172. I may be	Ai oi-bā yā-i			
173. I shall be	Ai oi-ga-ni	Nga sa-jū (I shall go) .	Nga sa-jero (I shall go) .	Nga kanange (I shail go).
174. I should be	Ai oi-ga-ni			
175. Beat	Phū			
176. To beat	Phū-bā, phū-na-na-bā			······
177. Beating	Phū-du-nā			·····
178. Having beaten .	Phū-ra-du-nā, phū-khi-du- nā.		****	
179. I beat	Ai-nā phū-i		·	·
180. Thou beatest	Nang-nā phū-i		*****	•••••
181. He beats	Mā-nā phū-i			
182. We beat	Ai-khoi-nā phū-i			 .
183. You beat	Na-khoi-nā phū-i			•••••
184. They beat	Ma-khoi-nā phū-i		:	
	Ai-nā phū-rē			

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	· Chairel (McCulloch).			
186. Thou beatest (Past	Nang-nā phū-rè .						
87. He beat (Past Tense) .	Mā-nā phū-rē						
188. We beat (Past Tense).	Ai-khoi-nā phū-rē .		<u></u>				
189. You beat (Past Tense).	Na-khoi-nā phū-rē .						
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Ma-khoi-nä-phū-rē .						
191. I am beating	Ai-nā phū-rī	*****	· ,				
192. I was beating	Ai-nā phū-ram-lī .			·····			
193. I had beaten	Ai-nā phū-ram-lē .	•					
194. I may beat	Ai-nā phū-bā yā-i						
195 I shall beat	Ai-nā phū-ga-ni .						
196. Thou wilt beat	Nang-nā phū-ga-ni .						
197. He will beat	Mā-nā phū-ga-ni .	•••••					
198. We shall beat	Ai-khoi-nā phū-ga-ni						
199. You will beat	Na-khoi-nā phū-ga-ni						
200. They will beat	Ma-khoi-nā phū-ga-ni						
201. I should beat	Ai-nā phū-ga-ni .						
202. I am beaten .	Ai-bu phū-i						
203. I was beaten	Ai-bu phū-rē						
204. I shall be beaten .	Ai-bu phū-ga-ni .						
205. I go	Ai chat-li	Nga sato	Nga sa-jo	Ngā kā-sē.			
206. Thou goest	Nang chat-li	Nang sanūo	Nang sa-jo	Nangna ka-se.			
207. He goes	Mā chat-li	Ī sangado	He sa-jo	Meda kā-se.			
208. We go	Ai-khoi chat-li .	Niyo sado		Ngĩ a kā-sē.			
209. You go	Na-khoi chat-li	Nang-ga sado	i	Nű da ka-se,			
210. They go	Ma-khoi chat-li .	Tik-ga sado	·	Muk da ka-se.			
211. I went	Ai chat-lē	Nga sango	Nga sango	Nga ka khānē.			

(<u> </u>	English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).			
212	. Thou wentest	Nang chat-lë						
213	He went	Mā chat-lē			•••••			
14.	We went	Ai-khoi chat-lē						
15.	You went	Na-khoi chat-lē	*******		1			
16.	They went	Ma-khoi chat-lē						
17.	Go	Chat-lu	Nang sa-taië	Sa-ture	Nang a-ka-de.			
18.	Going	Chat-tu-nā						
19.	Gone	Chat-khi-du-nä	·					
20.	What is your name?	Nang-gi na-ming ka-ri kau- ba-gē ?	· ·····					
21.	How old is this horse?	Sa-gol a-si chahi ka-yā su- ra-ba-gē ?	·····					
22	. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	A-si-da-gi Kashmir phāu- bā a-si ka-yā thāp-pa-gē?	······					
23	How many sons are there in your father's house?	Na-pā-gi yum-dā ma-chā ni-pā ka-yā lai-ba-gē ?	*****	·				
24.	I have walked a long way to-day.	Ai nga-si yām-nā chat-lē (or chat-lu-rē).			••••			
25.	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ai-gi khurā-gi ma-chā ni- pā-nā mā-gi ma-chan lau-i.						
26.	In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.	Sa-gol a-ngau-ba-gi sāban- di yumung-dā lai.						
27.	Put the saddle upon his back.	Ma-namgan-dā sābal hāp- kat-lu.	•••••					
28.	I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Ai-nā mā-gi ma-chā ni-pā- bu sa-jai-nā yām-nā phū- rē.						
29.	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Mā ching ma-ton-dā san sēl-lī.						
30.	He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Mā ū a-du-gi ma-khā-dā sa-gon teng-du-nā lai.						
31.	His brother is taller than his sister.	Mā-gi ma-chan-bu-di ma- nāc-nā hēn-nā wāng-i.	•••••					
32.	The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Mā-du-gi ma-man-di rūpā a-ni ma-khai-ni.						
33.	My father lives in that small house.	Yum apisak a-du-dā i-pā lai.						
34.	Give this rupee to him	Rŭpā a-si ma-ngondā pi-yu			•••••			
35.	Take those rupees from him.	Rūpā a-du ma-ngonda-gi lau.		······				

English.	Meithei (Manipur).	Andro (McCulloch).	Sengmai (McCulloch).	Chairel (McCulloch).
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Mā-bu kan-nā phū-du-nā thauri-nā pūl-u.			·
237. Draw water from the well.	Kuhā-da-gi ising sokat-lu .			
238. Walk before me	[-māng-dā chat-lu			•••••
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Na-tung-dā ka-nā-gi ni-pā ma-chā lāk-pa-gē ?		·	
240. From whom did you buy that?	Nang ma-du ka-nā-da-gi lei-ru-ba-gē?			·
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Khul a-si-gi dukāl-gi mi a-ma-da-gi.			

K.-C. G.-54

CHIN GROUPS.

INTRODUCTION.

The word Chin is generally used to denote the various tribes inhabiting the country to the east of the Lushai Hills, from Manipur in the north to about the eighteenth degree of north latitude in the south. On the east their country is bounded by Burma. All these tribes are believed to have come originally from the north. But in later times they have apparently been moving towards that direction, and some of the tribes have within the memory of man been pushed from the Northern Chin Hills into Manipur and Cachar. They do not themselves recognise the name Chin, but call themselves Yo or Zo in the north, Lai in the centre, and Shö in the south, besides many other tribal names. The word Chin is supposed by some authorities to be a corruption of the Chinese jen, a man. 1 It is used by the Burmese to denote all hills tribes, and is thus also applied to the Kachins. Shendu is another name used to denote different tribes in the Chin Hills, especially those along the Arakan and Chittagong frontier. Major Shakespear remarks that 'every one uses the term in a different sense, and it is not the name used by any tribe, but purely a bazar name.' It is supposed to be an Arakan appellation. name Poi, which also occurs in many authorities, is the Lushei denomination of tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head. It is thus similar to the Burmese 'Baungshe', from paung, to put on, and she, in front, applied to all the Chins who wear their hair in a knot over the forehead.

The Chins have only come under British influence in the last few years. Since the beginning of the last century they made numerous raids into our territory. Soon after Upper Burma had become a British province, it proved necessary to take steps to protect the new territory against incursions from the Chin Hills, and in 1888 an expedition was sent against the Siyins. In the season 1889-90 other columns entered the hills, from Fort White and from the Myittha valley. Haka was occupied in February 1890. A permanent post was established and a political officer stationed there. The hills were administered from Haka and Fort White, under the names of the Northern and Southern Chin Hills, respectively, up to 1892, when they were formed into one charge with headquarters at Falam. The Siyins and Soktes revolted in October 1892, but were subdued, and a regular house tax was then introduced. There has been no trouble in the Northern Chin Hills, since a final rising of the Siyins was suppressed in the season 1893-94. In 1894 all the southern tribes were disarmed. 'In all nearly 7,000 guns were taken from the tribes north and south between the years 1893 and 1896, and since this the hills have not only enjoyed peace, but there has been an almost total absence of serious crime. The growth of trade and intercourse between the Chins and the people of the plains was rapid, and considerable numbers of Chins settled in the Kale valley. The garrison of the Chin Hills was taken over by Military Police in 1895 and 1896, with a consequent great reduction in expenditure, and trade with the hills is steadily increasing.' Messrs. Scott and Hardiman, from whose Gazetteer of Upper Burma most of the preceding statements have been taken, describe the present condition of the hills as follows:-

'Now not only are the plains undisturbed, but the hills themselves are quite peaceful. Raids are unknown, and scarcely any crimes are committed, so that the Chin Hills are actually more secure than many parts of

¹ The word Chin is perhaps related to names such as China, Ching-pâ, Shān, Siam, etc., all common within the various branches of the Indo-Chinese family.

Lower Burma. Roads, on which Chin coolies now readily work, have been constructed in all directions; the rivers have been bridged; the people have taken up the cultivation of English vegetables, and the indigenous industries have been largely developed; British officers now tour about with escorts of only four or five men in places where formerly they could only go with columns. Burmese pedlars wander unmolested all over the hills, and the Chins themselves not only visit but settle in the plains. The relations with Manipur, the Lushai Hills, and Arakan are equally unrestricted. The completion of the Falam-Indin road will still more open up communication and cheapen goods. A settlement of Gurkhas in the valley of Laiyo, five miles from Falam, suggests great developments, though similar colonies at Haka and Fort White were not so prosperous. Altogether the reduction of the Chins to order is as great a matter of congratulation as the pacification of the Kachins and the peaceable development of the Shan States.'

The southernmost Chins, such as the Chinbōks, the Chinbōns, and the Chinmēs, are administered from Yawdwin, the Khyengs belong chiefly to the Arakan Hill Tracts, and the Deputy Commissioners of Minbu, Thayetmyo, Kyaukpyu, and Sandoway all have dealings with Chins residing within their districts. The chief tribes administered from Falam are the Soktes, Siyins, Tashōns, Hakas, Tlantlangs or Klangklangs and Yokwas. In the south there are several independent villages which do not belong to the main tribes, each with their own chief. The numbers of these tribes are estimated as follows by Messrs. Carey and Tuck:—

Sokte			10020					7027						9,005
42.00	•	•	•	•		•	•	•	•	•	•	•		1,770
Siyin	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	
Tashon					•	•	•	•	•					39,215
Haka														14,250
Tlantlang												,		4,925
Yokwa														2,675
Independe	nt s	outher	rn vill	ages										17,780
-											To	TAL		89,620

Nothing is known about the early history of these tribes. They are now rapidly becoming Burmanised. A full account of their customs and manners is given by Messrs. Carey and Tuck, and after them in the Gazetteer of Upper Burma. The remarks which follow have been taken from the latter work:—

The chief Kuki and Chin characteristics are said to be slow speech, serious manner, respect for birth and pride of pedigree, the duty of revenge, love of drink, virtue of hospitality, clan prejudices, avarice, distrust, impatience of control, and dirt. The average Chin is taller than most of his neighbours, about five feet six inches in height, but men only an inch or two under six feet are not uncommon. Some of them measure sixteen inches round the calf. The finest built men are the Siyins, Hakas, and the Southern tribesmen.

'They carry loads in baskets on the back, with a yoke which fits on the neck and a band which passes round the forehead. In this way they can carry 180h loads for twelve miles over a hilly country. The Whenos and Yahaos grow beards, but otherwise the Chins are hairless, though in the south elderly men cultivate a scanty moustache and goatee. All the tribes are uncleanly in their persons. All have a character for treachery. The Hakas are least unattractive in appearance and habits, the Siyins most so.

'The Siyins, Soktes, Thados, Yos, and Whenos wear the hair in a knot on the nape of the neck; the Tashons, Yahaos, Hakas, and the southerners generally tie it up on the top of the head, whence the name Baungshe, because it is usually just over the forehead. The hair-pins, like those of the southern tribes, are heavy, and are formidable enough to be deadly weapons in a sudden quarrel. The Chins are rapidly adopting Burmese forms of dress. When the hills were first occupied some wore a rough white cotton blanket or mantle only, some a loin cloth in addition. In the fields they worked mother-naked The women wore a skirt wound once and a half round the body and hitched in like the Burmese woman's petticoat . . . The villages used always to be placed in strong defensible positions, on peaks or steep ridges. Artificial means were adopted to make them difficult of access, and ramparts, rifle pits, thorny hedges, and spikes were added. The houses were often built over platforms cut out of the side of the hill. Water was often led in by bamboos or wooden trough aqueducts The houses were built of planking with thatched roofs and stood on piles In the front verandah are hung or stacked up the trophies of the chase acquired by the householder or his ancestors. Human skulls are never brought inside the village. They are mounted on posts outside.

'Like the Wa, the Hakas, Shunklas, and other southern tribes bury those of the family who have died a natural death, in the yard in the front of the house. The Siyins and Soktes never bury their dead inside the

village.

'All the Chin women smoke perpetually, partly for the sake of the smoke, but chiefly to supply the men with nicotine . . . The nicotine is not drunk. The men keep it in their mouths for a time and then spit it out . . . Chin liquor, yu or zu, is most commonly made from millet, but also from Indian-corn and from rice . . . Marriage is a mere matter of purchase. In the north the capacity of a girl as a field-labourer, in the south her pedigree (in addition to this) are the chief points . . . Unlike the Chinböks and Yindus, the Chins bury and do not burn their dead. Great importance, however, is attached to the remains being buried in or near the ancestral village. The Hakas and southerners, Tashōns and their tributaries bury inside the village in deep receptacles branching off at right angles. The Siyins, Soktes and Thados bury outside the village always and the corpse is usually dried for a year before burial . . .

'The Chin religion is a belief in spirits, all malignant. The northerners disbelieve in a supreme being; the southerners accept such a deity and call him Kozin. He is indifferent and may become malignant; at any rate he is not beneficent. Spirits preside over the usual places, the village, house, clan, family, individual, the flood, the fell, the air, the trees. They are not merely unwilling to bestow blessings, but incapable of doing so. The Hakas believe in another world called Mi-thi-kwa (dead-man's village) . . . The belief prevalent among many savage races, that the slain becomes the slave of the slayer, is held in many parts of the Chin Hills. The Siyins not only deny the existence of a supreme deity, but also of another world, though they believe in a future existence when there will be drinking and hunting. As to fighting and raiding they are uncertain. The names of spirits vary greatly . . . Different spirits require different sacrifices. It is useless to sacrifice a pig or a cock to a spirit who requires a mythun. There is a wise man or wise woman who understands spirits in every village. Throughout the hills there are various sacred spirit groves. Omens, witchcraft, and the evil eye are believed in.

'The Chins cultivate grain, pulses, roots, and vegetables . . . The only articles manufactured for export are cane and bamboo mats and baskets. Spears, dhas, axe-heads, hoes, and knives are manufactured locally.'

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It has been noted above (on p. 1) that the word Chin has the same meaning as the name Kuki. It has also been pointed out (above pp. 8 and ff.) that the denomination Chin will, in these pages, be used in such a way as to comprise all the tribes which are variously known as the Chins and the Kukis. Using the word in this broad sense the Chin languages must be sub-divided in four groups,—

- 1. Northern Chin.
- 2. Central Chin.

- 3. Old Kuki.
- 4. Southern Chin.

NORTHERN-CHIN SUB-GROUP.

This sub-group comprises the following dialects:-

							Tota	l, at le	ast		60,345
Paitē	, ,,	"	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	. ?
Rāltē	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	,,,	•	•	•				•		18,133
Siyin	,,	, ,,	•					•			1,770
Soktē	,,	,,,	•		•		•				9,005
Thado, including J	angshēn, spok	en by									31,437

Rāltē and Paitē form the link connecting this sub-group with the Central Chin languages.

THĀDO.

The Thado tribe formerly lived in the Lushai and Chin Hills where they had established themselves after having expelled the Rangkhöl and Bete tribes. They were afterwards expelled both from the Chin Hills and the Lushai Hills, and are now chiefly settled in Manipur, in the Naga Hills, and in South Cachar. The Lushai Chief Lallūlā began, about the year 1810, to move northwards, and the Thados were gradually expelled from the Lushai Hills, and settled down in Cachar somewhere between 1840 and 1850. About the same time the Thados of the Chin Hills were conquered by the Soktes under their chief Kantum, and were driven towards the north into Manipur, where they settled down in the hills to the south. There are now only six Thado villages left in the Chin Hills. Thado is the name of their original progenitor, but it is also used by the Chins to denote the tribe itself. In Assam and Bengal they are known as Kukis, a name which also comprises other tribes such as the Rangkhols, Hallams, Betes, etc. The Thados and their co-tribes are usually spoken of as new Kukis, owing to the fact that they came from the Lushai Hills at a later date than the other hill tribes, the so-called old Kukis. In Manipur they are called Khongzais, and they use this name themselves in conversation with Manipuris, whom they call Mei-lei.

Several sub-tribes trace their origin back to Thādo and his brothers. McCulloch states that the principal clans are the Thādos proper, Shingsol, Chongloi, Hangseen, Keepgen, and Hankoop, from which have sprung several sub-clans of smaller importance. Mr. Damant mentions four principal tribes, Thādo and Shingsol, Changsen and Khlāngam, while Mr. Soppitt speaks of 'Jansēn' as the principal tribe and 'Tadoi' as a co-tribe. Kotang, Shīk-Shinshum, Rāltē, and Sēri are, according to him, different offshoots of these tribes. Other sources give the names Katlang and Sairang, and the different hill tribes use several other names to denote the Thādos. It is, however, of little use to make all these divisions and sub-divisions. They have nothing to do with the language. All these tribes, with the exception of Rāltē, speak the same language, and the dialectical differences are only slight. The language itself is, according to Messrs. Stewart and Damant, called *Thādo-pao*, Thādo language.

The Thados maintain that they have come out from the bowels of the earth. They explain the origin of the different tribes by the legend that the grandsons of their first king were told to catch a rat, but were struck with a confusion of tongues. In this way they also try to bring themselves in connection with the Meitheis and other surrounding tribes. They state that they have come from the north, and this tradition probably contains a remembrance of old wanderings, from the times before they settled down in the

Lushai and Chin hills. The different tribes are now said to be mixed together in many of their villages.

Major McCulloch gives the following description of these tribes:-

'The Kookies are a short sturdy race of men with a goodly development of muscle. Their legs are, generally speaking, short in comparison to the length of their bodies, and their arms long. Their complexion differs little from that of the Bengalee and comprises various shades, but the features are most markedly dissimilar; the face is nearly as broad as long, and is generally round or square, the cheek bones high, broad, and prominent, eyes small and almond-shaped, and the nose short and flat with wide nostrils. The women appear more squat than the men even, but are strong and lusty, and quite as industrious and indefatigable as the Naga women, working hard all day either at home or in the fields, and accustomed to carry heavy loads. The men, like the Nagas, are inclined to be lazy, though not to such an extent as that tribe. They love to sit on high platforms raised for the purpose in their villages, and pass the day in conversation and smoking. Men, women, and children all smoke to the greatest excess. A Kookie is hardly ever seen without a pipe in his mouth, and one of his few means of calculating time and distance is by the number of pipes he smokes. The men smoke a pipe, the bowl of which is either made of brass, rudely ornamented, or of the end of a small bamboo tube, a reed (it is like a reed but is a bamboo) being let in near the knot as a mouth-piece. The women have a bowl with water in it attached to their pipes, and the smoke in passing through impregnates the water with its fumes. This fumigated water is filled into little bamboo tubes, and other reservoirs in which it is carried about by the men who occasionally sip of it, retaining it in the mouth for some time before spitting it out again, and on meeting a friend, hand it to him as a mark of courtesy. They also chew tobacco in great quantities. They are filthy in person to an inconceivable degree. A cloth round the waist in the fashion of the Koupocees is worn by individuals, but generally this is dispensed with, and the only covering of the body is a coarse sheet in the disposing of which for the concealment of the person they are adepts. They all wear head dresses or turbans of cotton cloth or silk, in the folding of which they are very expert. The women wrap a scanty strip of cloth round their persons sufficient to prevent them from being called naked; over their shoulders they throw a sheet, or, if young, wrap it round their bodies under the arm-pits. They have no head dress but a luxuriant crop of not coarse hair which is parted in the middle and plaited at the sides, the plaits being passed round the back of the head and tied in front over the forehead.'

The Thados are a migratory race, and do not occupy their villages for more than two or three years at a time, when they move on to a new place, more fit for cultivation. The staple food is rice, and it is produced through the ordinary *jhum* cultivation. They prefer woody spots, on the tops of the hills, for their villages. Their houses are small, and built on raised platforms, and generally face one another, with a broad path running down the centre. They are governed by hereditary chiefs, who formerly had a considerable degree of power. They pay great attention to their genealogy, and trace themselves back to the first chief who came out from the bowels of the earth.

Most of these tribes believe in a supreme god, generally called *Pathien*, but there are, besides, numerous spirits which must always be propitiated. The dead are usually buried. The bodies of the deceased chiefs are, however, placed on a raised platform and left there to decompose, or dried over a slow fire until the flesh gets smoked and hardened to the bone. After some time the remains are then buried.

The Thados buy their wives, and the price may be paid in money or through personal bondage for two or three years.

They attach great importance to the comb and always wear it entwined in the hair. They are very particular as to who is entitled to use their comb. McCulloch is inclined to think that this may be due to the attention they pay to their genealogy.

There is no written literature, but they have still old songs in a language which they no longer understand. The priests have developed a technical language of their own, unintelligible to the rest of the people.

It is almost impossible to make an exact statement with regard to the number of

THĀDO. 61

speakers of these dialects, because they often, in the local returns, have been included in the general term Kuki. What we know is as follows:—

In the Manipur State the Khongzāis are settled throughout the length and breadth of the hill country and also in the Yongba Langkhong village in the valley. They are most numerous in the south-west and north-west. Their total number is estimated at 20,000.

In the Nága Hills they are known as the Langtung colony. They are returned as Kukis and are said to number 5,500. They speak the Thado language.

In North Cachar there is said to be some speakers of Jangshen, but no particulars are given.

Dialects of Thado are spoken in the Cachar Plains. Most of them are here known as Sairang. They are settled in the east of the district, and their number is said to be 5,270. Saimar is spoken by a few individuals who have come down from the Cachar Hills to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division in the Plains since the Census of 1891. The Deputy Commissioner gives the total for Ralte, Langrong, and Saimar as 399, without saying how many speakers there are of each. We may provisionally put down 133 for Saimar.

One thousand and six hundred individuals in Sylhet are reported as speaking Standard Kuki. Only a few words, translated in different parts of the district, have been received. They seem to belong to the Langrong and Hallām dialects with the exception of some words taken down at the Sagarnal Punji, which apparently are Thādo: I have provisionally put down 534 as speakers of that latter language.

The total of speakers of Thado dialects may, therefore, provisionally be put down as follows:—

Manipur .						• 1	•				20,000
Naga Hills											5,500
North Cachai											5
Cachar Plain	в.										5,403
Sylhet .			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	534
-								To)T A L		31,437

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Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from the Yongba Langkhong village in the Manipur valley. They have been prepared by Babu Another list has been received from the Nága Hills. It is very Bisharup Singh. incorrect. I have corrected all obvious mistakes, and, in many places, added within parentheses, the corresponding words from Mr. Butler's vocabulary, quoted among authorities. A third list has been taken down in the Cachar Plains. It is incomplete. and the Deputy Commissioner states that it has proved impossible to get anything more. I have, in another column, entered the corresponding words from Sir George Campbell's list. I have corrected the misprints in this latter list so far as I have been able to do so. These texts represent, in all essential points, the same language. The Manipur specimens are in some points influenced by Meithei, but in all essential points they agree with the other specimens. The same is the case with the published vocabularies of other Thado dialects, and we are fully justified in speaking of one Thado language. Stewart has published a short grammar of the language, which, together with the forms occurring in the specimens, is the foundation of the following remarks on Thado grammar.

Pronunciation.—There is great inconsistency in the marking of long vowels. Thus, we find $kh\bar{a}t$ and khat, one; $n\bar{a}$ and na, thy, etc. U is always marked as long in the Manipur specimens, etc. A vowel is sometimes doubled, probably in order to denote a long pronunciation. Thus, $t\bar{a}am$ and $t\bar{a}m$, cut; ghuup and $g\bar{u}p$, six; $k\bar{e}el$ and $k\bar{e}l$, goat. In words such as $n\bar{e}ya\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{e}u$, small, we may infer that each vowel is pronounced separately. It is often difficult to state what vowel is uttered in each case, there being considerable inconsistency in the spelling. A is apparently written for a0 or a1 in many words in Sir George Campbell's list. Thus, a1, a2, a3, a4, a5, a6, a7, a8, a8, a9, a9,

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ho, etc. A and \bar{u} are interchanged in the specimens from Manipur; thus, am, and $\bar{u}m$, to be; \bar{a} and \bar{e} , in kisān and kisēn, even. \bar{U} and o are often interchangeable; thus, khūt and khot, hand; hūng and hong, to come. In the same way \bar{e} and i are often interchanged; thus, hēngā and hingā, to; $\bar{e}n$ and in, suffix of the adverbial participle. The writing of the diphthongs is inconsistent. Thus, we find kai and, more correctly, kei, I; ngai and ngēi, suffix of the plural; sāi, sēi, and sē, say; chēi and chē, go; hai, hē, hā, and hi, to be; niang for nēn, eat, etc. Oū and ūo are sometimes apparently written instead of \bar{a} or o; thus soūk and soh, slave; pūon, carrying; po-tan, carry, etc.

It seems as if the pronunciation were, in many cases, indistinct, especially in prefixes. Thus, the pronominal prefix of the first person occurs in the forms ka, $k\bar{a}$, $k\bar{e}$, and $k\bar{u}$; the prefix of the second person as na, $n\bar{a}$, and ni, etc.

Concurrent vowels are often contracted. Thus, $a-p\bar{a}n$, for $a-p\bar{a}-in$, his-father-by; $p\bar{e}n$ for $p\bar{e}-in$, give; lon, for lo-in, take; $ih\bar{a}m$ for $i-hi-\bar{a}m$, what? $i-ch\bar{a}n$ $l\bar{a}m$, for $ich\bar{a}n$ $l\bar{a}-\bar{a}m$, how far, etc. The hiatus, however, often remains, or is removed by inserting a euphonic consonant. Such are y, j, and v, often written b. Thus, kei-jin, I; hi-jam, what? $kai-y\bar{a}$, mine; $nang-\bar{u}-b\bar{a}$, that is $nang-ho-v-\bar{a}$, thine, etc. J as a euphonic consonant does not occur in the Manipur texts. It is pronounced z, and in the Naga Hills list we even find nang-zhein, of thee. An apparently euphonic m is sometimes inserted after p; thus, $a-chop-m\bar{e}$, he kissed. Before an n a preceding t is usually dropped, as in $kha-n\bar{a}$, one-to, from khat, one; $a-kho-n\bar{a}$, his-hand-on, from khot, hand.

Final consonants are occasionally silent; compare p. 4 above. Thus, $m\bar{u}$ and $m\bar{u}k$, see; $ch\bar{o}k$ and cho, buy. An ng is sometimes added, apparently in order to denote a faint nasal sound. Thus, $ch\bar{a}$ -nung and $ch\bar{a}$ -n \bar{u} , daughter; tu-ni, tu-nin, and tu-ning, to-day; $n\bar{u}k$ -chang and $n\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , behind, etc. Ng is interchangeable with n; thus, hing, being; $p\bar{u}on$, carrying: niang, eat; $p\bar{e}n$, give, etc. In a-man- $f\bar{e}t$ - $l\bar{e}$, having-been-lost, n is written for ng.

Hard and soft consonants are not interchanged. A- $d\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{u}n$ - \bar{u} , his-back-on, in No. 227 of the Manipur list, is probably due to Meithei influence. Compare $t\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{u}n$ back. Aspirates are often written instead of unaspirated letters, especially in the Cachar list; thus ghup for $g\bar{u}p$, six; $th\bar{u}ng$ and $t\bar{u}ng$, a suffix of the imperative. The Aryan-speaking inhabitants of Cachar, as a rule, are quite unable to pronounce an aspirated letter (though they often write it).

An h is written after most final vowels in the same list. It perhaps denotes the short, abrupt tone.

W and b are sometimes interchanged; thus, $w\bar{a}to$ and $b\bar{a}hto$, duck; wanghin and banghing, on account of. W is probably the sound intended. Compare wi and ui, dog; woi and $o\bar{e}i$, belly.

R and l are sometimes interchanged; thus, sakor and sakol, horse; chilhāt and serhāt, cow. This last word occurs as sherāk in the Cachar list.

J is probably pronounced z or, perhaps, as in the French word jour. It is interchangeable with y, the latter sound being common in the Manipur texts, the former in the lists from Cachar and the Naga Hills. Thus, Khongzāi $i-y\bar{a}$, Sairang $i-j\bar{a}$, Naga Hills dialect $i-zh\bar{a}t$, how many. G apparently sometimes takes the place of j; thus, gom and jom, to join; ji and yi, spouse in the Manipur list; ji and gi in the Sairang list.

Lh in the Manipur and Naga Hills lists corresponds to fl in Sairang in $lh\bar{a}$ and $fl\bar{a}$, moon; $lh\bar{a}i$ and $fl\bar{a}$, run. Fl is perhaps miswriting for tl. Sir George Campbell has $thl\bar{a}$, moon, and kla, run.

S and t seem to interchange in $s\bar{a}n$ or $s\bar{a}an$ and $t\bar{a}n$, cut, in the second specimen. S is probably wrong. Ch is sometimes written for s; thus, $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} and $m\bar{a}$ -chang- \bar{a} , before, etc.

We have no information with regard to tones and accentuation.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral khat, one, is used as an Indefinite article and definiteness is expressed by means of pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses.

Nouns.—The prefixes ka, na, and a, which precede many nouns, are usually the possessive pronouns; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$, my-father; na- $p\bar{a}$, thy-father; a- $p\bar{a}$, his-father, all used as translations of 'a father.' The prefix a is sometimes used in a wider sense; thus, a- $l\bar{a}m$, dance, a- $f\bar{a}$, good, etc. The prefix ka is also used in a similar way; thus, ka-ti- $l\bar{e}$, saying. The suffix pi is often added to great things, and $ch\bar{a}$ to small ones. Both are originally adjectives, but seem to have lost their full meaning. Thus, sai-pi, an elephant, wa- $ch\bar{a}$, a bird; $m\bar{e}ng$ - $ch\bar{a}$, a cat.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is indicated by means of separate words or suffixes. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: pasal, man; $n\bar{u}$ -mai, woman. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings, $p\bar{a}$, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female; and, in the case of animals, chal, or a-chal, male; $n\bar{u}$ or a- $n\bar{u}$, female. Thus, \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, elder brother; \bar{u} - $n\bar{u}$, elder sister; sakol a-chal, horse; sa-kol a- $n\bar{u}$, mare. The Cachar list also contains a female suffix pi (piu in the Naga Hills list) used of animals. Thus, $\bar{u}i$ $ch\bar{a}l$, dog; $\bar{u}i$ pi, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, suffixes such as ho and $t\bar{e}$ are added. Thus, a-so $\bar{u}k$ -ho, his servants; ka- $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$ -ho, my-fathers. Ngai or $ng\bar{e}i$, many, and tam-pi, many, are used in the same way; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ $ng\bar{e}i$, my-father many, fathers, in the Cachar list; ka- $p\bar{a}$ tam-pi, fathers in the Manipur list.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix in, by, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a- $p\bar{a}n$ a- $so\bar{u}k$ -ho $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$ a- $s\bar{e}$ - $y\bar{e}$, his-father his-servants to he said. The Genitive is indicated by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ $so\bar{u}k$, my father's servants. The governed noun may be repeated by means of a possessive pronoun; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$ a- $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my uncle his-son, the son of my uncle. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are :— \bar{a} , in, to; $h\bar{e}ng$ and $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$, to, from; in, in, at, by means of; $kh\bar{u}$, to; $l\bar{e}$, with; $m\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, before; $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$, behind; $s\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$, in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by the prefix a. The suffixes $p\bar{a}$ and $t\bar{a}$ are sometimes added. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. Thus, $sakol\ a-k\bar{a}ng$, horse white; $a-ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}\ a-lh\bar{u}m-p\bar{a}$, his-son younger; $a-fa-t\bar{a}\ pasal$, a good man. Pi or $p\bar{e}$ and $ch\bar{a}$ are added, in the same way as they are added to nouns, in order to convey the idea of greatness or smallness, respectively. Thus, $a-l\bar{u}n-pi$, very great, great; $n\bar{e}ya\bar{u}-ch\bar{a}$ and $neu-ch\bar{a}$, very small, small.

The particle of comparison is $s\bar{a}ng$, usually followed by the postpositions \bar{a} or in; thus, a-ni $s\bar{a}ng-\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng-\bar{e}$, two among he tall; $\bar{a}-supi-n\bar{u}$ $s\bar{a}ng-in$ (or $s\bar{a}ngnin$) $\bar{a}-supi-p\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng-\bar{e}$, his-sister than his-brother he tall is; tam-pi $s\bar{a}ng-\bar{a}$ $a-s\bar{a}ng-\bar{e}$, many among hetall-is, tallest. Nehki, that is $n\bar{e}k-in$, is once used instead of $s\bar{a}ng-in$ in the Sairang list; thus, $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ nehki $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}ng-\bar{e}$, him than he-tall-is. Yo is added to the adjective in a-ni

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sāngā faiyo, better, in the Manipur list. Compare Siyin $z\hat{a}$. In the Sairang list dhom is sometimes added in the comparative, and $p\bar{e}n$ in the superlative; thus, \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}$ -dhom- \bar{e} , better; \bar{a} - $ph\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{e}n$ - \bar{e} , best. Stewart gives $d\bar{e}$ and $p\bar{e}n$. All these additions mean 'much,' 'more.' The same is the case with $t\bar{a}k$ in $p\bar{u}$ on a-fa- $t\bar{a}k$, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the lists of words. They follow the word they qualify. A in a-ni, two, and i in illi, four, are probably generic prefixes. Another prefix of this kind is chēng, used with reference to money; thus, chū-chē man chēng-ni ma-khai, that-of price two a-half. In kēl-chā nū cha-khat, goat-young female one, cha is prefixed to the numeral. It seems to be identical with chā in kēl-chā, and to denote small animals.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal Pronouns*:—Singular,—

kei- $m\bar{a}$, kei, I, my.nang- $m\bar{a}$, nang, thou, thy.a- $m\bar{a}$, he, she, it.ka, my.na, thy.a, his, her, its.kei- \bar{a} , mine.nang- \bar{a} , thine.a- $m\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} , his, hers, its.

Plural,-

kei-ho, we. nang-ho, you. a-mā-ho, they.

The lists of words contain several mistakes, and also some forms which are probably correct. Thus, $\bar{a}h$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, his, in the Sairang list. The pronouns are inflected like nouns by means of postpositions. Thus, kein and kei-jin, by me; nang-zhein, of thee, in the Naga Hills list, probably for nang-in; kei $th\bar{u}$, my word, of me; nang na- $s\bar{u}m$, thou thy-property, thy property, etc. Ei or \bar{e} is sometimes added to the pronoun of the first person, in the dative and the accusative; thus, hi- $p\bar{u}n$ kei- $\bar{e}i$ $d\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{e} , he strikes me; kei- $m\bar{a}$ - \bar{e} $w\bar{e}$, me-concerning striking, I am struck, etc. This form occurs, in the lists, only in the translation of the passive, but it is, according to Stewart, in common use.

The Demonstrative pronouns are hi, this; $h\bar{u}$ and $ch\bar{u}$, that. Cha and $ch\bar{e}$ are often added; thus, $h\bar{u}i\text{-}cha$, i.e., $h\bar{u}\text{-}cha$, that; $ch\bar{u}\text{-}ch\bar{e}$, that. $Hi\text{-}ch\bar{e}$ and $hi\text{-}ch\bar{e}\text{-}p\bar{a}$ are also used as a personal pronoun of the third person. Hi-hi, $h\bar{u}$, $hi\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, $h\bar{u}\text{-}h\bar{u}$, and $h\bar{u}\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, are, according to Stewart, used in the same way. $A\text{-}m\bar{a}$ is, on the other hand, used as a demonstrative pronoun.

There are no Relative pronouns. The root alone, without any suffix, is used as a relative participle. Thus, $la\bar{u}$ $lh\bar{u}$ mi, field cultivating man, a cultivator; $y\bar{a}m$ ching mi, sheep-tending man, a shepherd; kei- $y\bar{a}$ am $ya\bar{u}s\bar{e}$ nang- \bar{a} a- $h\bar{e}$, mine being all thine is. The demonstrative pronouns are often used as a correlative; thus, kei chan-ding $s\bar{e}l$ -a- $s\bar{u}m$ a- $m\bar{a}$ $p\bar{e}n$, I getting property that give. Chan-ding is a verbal noun, consisting of chan, to get, and the postposition ding, for. It is used as a relative participle just in the same way as the forms am, etc., in the instances just quoted.

Other verbal forms may be used in the same way. The suffix $t\bar{a}$, for instance, which usually conveys the idea of completeness and therefore may be considered as a suffix of the past tenses, is also used in order to form relative participles of the past time. Thus, nung na-sūm yaūsē sū-yo-nū hēngā pēn na-chā-pān a-bon-in a-mang-sā-tā na-chā-pā hi a-hung-bamē, thy property all harlots to giving thy-son all he-wasted thy-son this he-coming. Compare the use of the suffix $t\bar{a}$ after adjectives.

The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is the only suffix which is peculiar to the relative participle. It is, as already stated, often added to adjectives, and it also forms nouns of agency. Thus,

 $la\bar{u}$ - $lh\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$, cultivator; $k\bar{e}l$ -ching- $p\bar{a}$, goat-herder, $th\bar{u}$ - $ng\bar{e}i$ - $p\bar{a}$, a commander. This suffix is very common in many connected languages, and it should be compared with the Tibetan article pa.

The Interrogative pronouns are koi, and ko, who? i, what? i-yā or i-jā, how many? etc. Pi, probably identical with the word added to nouns and adjectives, is sometimes suffixed to i. The interrogative particle am is usually added to the word which has the function of a verb. Thus, i-pi a-bol-am, what do-they-do? na-nūng-ā koi pasal nēyaū-chā hūng-am, thy-back-at whose man small comes? whose boy comes behind you? sakol hi kūm i-yā ham, horse this years how-many are? Ham in the last instance is contracted from hi-am. Compare hi-yam in No. 222 of the Manipur list.

The Indefinite pronoun koi-ma-chā, anyone, is formed from the interrogative koi, who?

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ka, I and we; na, thou and you; a, he, she, it and they. The vowels of these prefixes are apparently indistinctly sounded. See remarks under the head of Pronunciation. The prefixes are often dropped before the imperative and in interrogative sentences, and apparently always in the future. The Khongzai texts omit them also in other cases.

The root alone without any suffix is apparently used to denote present and past times. Thus, na- $p\bar{a}$ in- \bar{a} a- $ch\bar{a}$ pasal i- $y\bar{a}$ $\bar{u}m$ -am, thy father's house-in his-child male how-many are? ko $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$ na-han-choh-am, whom from thou-buy-didst? The suffix \bar{e} , also written $\bar{e}i$ and i, is, however, usually added. Thus, ka-thi- $d\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$ - \bar{e} , I-to-die-about-am; a-hai- $y\bar{e}$, they were. It is often contracted with a final vowel; thus, a- $p\bar{e}$, he gives; a-hai, they were; kein ka-woi, I have struck. The suffixes \bar{a} and in are sometimes used in the same way; thus, a-lhom- \bar{a} , they-few-are; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ chin, he goes; $s\bar{e}$ -in, (he) said. All these suffixes are probably various forms of the verb substantive.

A suffix nai is, according to Stewart, sometimes added to the root in the present and past tenses. It occurs in a few instances in Sir George Campbell's list. Thus, \bar{a} -um- $n\bar{a}e$, he is; $k\bar{e}$ -ha (i.e., kei-ho) $k\bar{a}$ -um- $n\bar{a}i$, we were. It seems to contain another verb substantive.

The common suffix of the *Past tense* is $t\bar{a}$, or $t\bar{a}ve$, $t\bar{e}$, $t\bar{a}i$, that is probably $t\bar{a}$ plus \bar{e} . Thus, a-hom- $p\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he-divided-gave; a- $ch\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}i$, he went. This tense is also used to denote the present time, considered as an established fact. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ so $\bar{u}k$ s $\bar{u}n$ -lon a-mon \bar{e} a- $n\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}i$, my-father's servants hired in-plenty they-are-eating.

The verb jou (or you), to accomplish, is, according to Stewart, sometimes added in order to form an emphatic past. It seems to occur in a- $s\bar{u}m$ a-bon a-mang-yo-in, his-property all it-wasted-was-when, and in \bar{a} -hi-jou- $t\bar{u}e$, having been.

A Present Definite and an Imperfect are formed from the participles ending in \bar{a} and in, generally with the addition of some verb meaning 'to be.' Thus, $a-m\bar{a}$ sakol to-in $a-\bar{u}m-\bar{e}$, he horse-on sitting he-is; \bar{a} -chēl- \bar{a} , he is grazing; kain wong-am-tē, I was striking. The suffix \bar{e} is added in $a-m\bar{a}n$ sēl ka-ching- \bar{e} , he cattle grazing-is.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are *in* and *tān*; the latter also written *tang*, *tāven*, thāng and tā. The *i* of *in* is usually dropped after a final vowel, and we are, therefore, justified in explaining the suffix tān as consisting of *in*, added to the suffix of the past, or rather the completed action. It adds emphasis. Thus, soom-in, bind; pēn, give; ni-nai-tā, thou-keep (me as thy servant); chi-thāng (Sairang), go; hūng-tān (Stewart), come. The suffix of the negative imperative is hi-in; thus, lhai-hi-in, don't run away; yu-kam-hi-in, don't get drunk.

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The final consonant of this suffix is, as already stated, written both n and ng. In several connected languages we find that the same suffixes are often used to form the imperative and the future, and the suffix in or ing seems to be identical with the future suffixes ang in Lushēi, in in Ngentē, ing in Rāltē, ēng in Kōm, etc. The original meaning is probably the same as that of the suffixes ding, rang, sik, etc., viz. 'for,' 'in order to.' Compare Infinitive of purpose below. A suffix o is also used to form imperatives; thus, koy-o, put. It seems to be added to $t\bar{a}$ in $n\bar{e}-a\bar{u}-t\bar{a}$ $\bar{u}m-ta\bar{u}-t\bar{e}$, eating let us remain.

The Future is formed from the imperative and is characterised by the absence of the pronominal prefixes. The forms ending in in or ing and tān or tāng are used as the base of this tense, and, besides, also a third form ending in nāng, formed from the verbal noun in nā. The suffix ē is added in the first person; thus chēng-ē, I will go; sai-tāng-ē, I will say; kein wo-nāng-ē, I will strike. In the Nága Hills list we also find kē-ē vo-zhēng-ē (that is vo-z-ing-ē), me-concerning striking-will-be, I shall be struck. Tē, that is probably ti-ē, says, is added in the second and third persons, and is, in the second person, preceded by the pronominal prefix na. Thus, nang-in wo-nāng-na-tē, thou wilt strike, lit. thee-by striking-will-be thou sayst; a-mān wo-nān-tē, he will strike. Sir George Campbell also gives kei-mā hing-kā-tē, I shall be, and from this form we must infer that tē may also be added in the first person. Compare ūm-taū-tē, let us remain, ka peng-gē-tāi, I shall give; ka heng-khit-in-tē, I shall return, and the future in Hallām, p. 196 below.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus na-chā kei cham a-hai-poi, thy-son my being it-is-not (proper); kei-ho nūi-lē-nūp a-fangēlē, our merry-and-glad-being good-is. Postpositions are added to this form in order to make adverbial clauses. Thus, nang thaū ka-bol-ā, thy service my-doing-in, while I did thy service; ni thūm ni li am-lē, days three days four remaining-with, after three or four days had passed; limbē a-sē-ēn, sense his-knowing-in, when he came to senses; a-gam-lā am-lā-ēn, far being-time-at, when he was still far off. Other forms of the verb are used in the same way as verbal nouns; thus, a-thi-tā-banghing, his-dying-finishing-on-account-of, because he was dead; a-mang-yo-in, it-spending-completing-in, after it had all been spent.

The suffix of the infinitive is, according to Stewart, na; thus, $ch\bar{e}$ -na, to go. It occurs in the Manipur list in a-wo-na-ding, striking-for, to strike. This latter form is an Infinitive of purpose, formed from the verbal noun in na by adding the postposition ding, for, in order to. Ding also occurs in the form $d\bar{e}ng$; thus, $n\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}ng$, in order to eat. Compare the remarks under the head of Pronunciation.

The usual way of denoting the purpose is to put the verb in the imperative and add the participle ka-ti-lē, saying. Thus, wok na-ching-in ka-ti-lē, 'pigs tend' saying, in order to tend pigs; wok an kisēn ni-ang (that is probably nēn) ka-ti-lē koi-ma-chān i-pē-poi, pigs' food even 'eat' saying anyone gave-not; a-in-ā lūn-in ka-ti-lē a-nūm-poi, hishouse-in, 'enter' saying he-wished-not.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned under Relative pronouns. Adverbial participles are formed by adding in or ing; thus, pūon, carrying; hing, being. Compare Verbal noun, above. A suffix tā forms adverbial participles in kai-ho nom-tā an nē-aū-tā ūm-taū-tē, we merrily rice eating let-us-remain. This participle is probably formed from the past verbal noun in tā by adding the postposition ā, in.

Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the postpositions $\bar{e}n$ or in, $l\bar{e}$, and $n\bar{a}$, to the verbal noun. Thus, a-ngong-in ko- $\bar{e}n$ a-chop- $m\bar{e}$, his-neck-on embracing he-kissed;

a-in-ā a-hūng-lē kayāi, his-house-to having-come he-heard; a-chē-nā a-gi-gom-tai, he-went-and joined.

There is no *Passive voice*. 'I am struck' must be translated 'somebody strikes me.' Thus, *kei-mā-ē wē*, me-concerning striking; *ka-mū-ki-tāi*, I found him again, he was found again; *kei-mā-ē woa-ding a-hē*, me-concerning striking-for it-is, I shall be struck.

Compound verbs are formed in order to modify the meaning of the primary verbs. Thus, $h\bar{u}ng-lh\bar{e}-in$, coming-running, running towards; $a-hom-p\bar{e}-t\bar{a}$, he-divided-gave. The prefix hin or han denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hin-cho-in, bring; ko $h\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$ na-han-choham, whom from did-you-buy? I cannot see the meaning of the prefix which occurs in the forms ga and ka; thus, $ga-l\bar{a}n$, take-from; $ga-sok-\bar{e}n$, draw-from; $ka-y\bar{a}i$, he heard; $ka-ch\bar{e}-l\bar{e}$, having gone; $ka-ching-\bar{e}$, he-is-grazing, etc. Compare the prefix ka or ga in Bodo, Nāgā, and Kachin languages.

Causatives are formed by adding $p\bar{a}$ or pi, to give, and $s\bar{a}$, to make (?). Thus, $b\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{e}$ -in, cause to wear; sil-pi-in, cause to wear; a-mang- $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, he-lost-made, he wasted. Causatives are also formed by prefixing su; thus, ka phat-vet a-su-ket-pa koi hi-am, my looking-glass its-breaker who is, who broke my glass; but a-ket- $t\bar{a}i$, it is broken. Desideratives are formed by adding $n\bar{u}m$, $n\bar{o}m$, to wish; mi tampi a- $ch\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}m$ -ta-poi, men many they-to-go-wished-not. Potentiality is expressed by adding thai, to be able; thus, kei hi-thai- $n\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{e} , I to-be-able-be-shall, I may be. Ki denotes mutuality; thus, ki- $p\bar{a}$ - $\bar{e}n$, being glad together; a ki- $ch\bar{u}$ -chonin, they quarrelled. Other additions are $d\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$, to be about; $f\bar{a}$, it is good; kit, khit, back, again, etc. $F\bar{e}t$ - $l\bar{e}$ and $f\bar{e}t$ -nin are added in a-man- $f\bar{e}t$ - $l\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{u}k$ - $f\bar{e}t$ -nin, he lost-having-been I-found-again. $F\bar{e}t$ probably means 'to go,' and the literal translation of the clause is perhaps, 'he-lost-gone-having my-seeing-went.'

The Negative particle is hi; thus, kein ka-nūm-hi-ē ka-ti-hi-ē, 'I-wish-not,' I said not; hūng-hi-in, do not come. Another negative is poi; thus, a-hi-poi, it-is-not, no; ni-pē-poi, thou-gavest-not; a-nūm-ta-poi, he-wished-not; kai chē-pong-ē, I will not go. A third negative, lo or lon, occurs in a-fa-lo, good-not, bad; mighi-lon, bad, etc.

The Interrogative particle is am. See Interrogative pronouns.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb.

[No. 4.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

THĀDO.

KHONZĀI.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

a-hai-yē. A-mā-mikā a-lhūm-pā pasal ni khat a-chā Pasal male two they-were. Them-from the-younger hishis-child Man onekai chan-ding sēl-a-sūm a-mā kai hēngā pēn, 'Ka-pā, chā-pān, give, his-father toshare-for property that meson-by, 'My-father, my a-hom-pē-tā. Ni hēngā sē-in. A-mā-nikā a-pān sūm a-bon-in Them-for his-father-by property allhe-divided-gave. Days three pūon a-gam-la-pē am-lē a-chā-pā a-lhūm-pān $s\bar{u}m$ a-bon ni allfar his-son younger-by property carrying days four remaining a-lim-lo-in-kisān a-sūm a-chē-tāi. Ka-chē-lē mi-khūā khanā his-property wickedly-even villagehe-went. Having-gone one-to a-bon a-mang-yo-in ka-chēn a-khūā a-bon a-mang-tāi. A-sūm he-wasted-having that-in villagerice allhe-wasted. His-property alla-dā-talhē-ē. Chāng-ti-wai-be-she-tān a-mā a-hā-talhē-ē. he he-wretched-extremely-became. it-dear-extremely-became. Scarcity-being pasal khat-a a-chē-nā a-gi-gom-tāi. ' Wok na-ching-in,' a-folā Amān thou-tend,' ' Pigs Him-by that-place-in man one-to he-going he-joined. kisēn 'niang' Wok an ka-ti-lē a-pūsal chūn a-mān laū-ā a-sol-tāi. foodeat' even Pigs' that him-by field-to he-sent. man saying i-pē-poi. Limbē a-sē-ēn a-mān a-sē-tāi, koi-ma-chān ka-ti-lē Sense he-knowing him-by he-said, 'My-father's gave-not. any-one-by saying ka-thi-dē-dē-ē. a-monē a-nē-tāi, kai ka-gil-a-kēl-in sūm-lon soūk in-plenty they-eat, I my-belly-its-hunger-with I-to-die-about-am. servants hired "ka-pā, kai Pathēn hēngā ka-mō-tāi, na-hēngā hēngā chēngē, Kai ka-pā I-sinned, thee-to God go-will, " My-father, I I my-father to Na-sūm-lo na-soūk kai cham a-hai-poi. Na-chā ka-mo-tāi. vong Thy-money-taking thy-servant it-is-not. my being alsoI-sinned. Thy-son hēngā a-hūng-ē. sai-tange.' A-mā hūng-kit-ho-ro-en a-pā khat ni-nai-tā." his-father he-came. returning one thou-keep," say-will.' Hea-mā a-mū-tāi, a-lūng-a-si-tāi, hūng-lhē-in A-gam-lā am-lā-ēn a-pān he-saw, his-mind-it-pitied, coming-running Far-off being-when his-father-by him Ka-pā, hēngā a-sēyē, a-chop-mē. A-chā-pān a-pā a-ngong-in ko-ēn he-said, 'My-father, his-neck-on embracing he-kissed. His-son-by his-father to

kain Pathen hēngā ka-mo-tāi, na-hēngā yong ka-mo-tāi. Na-chā me-by God I-sinned, thee-to also I-sinned. Thy-son my a-soūk-ho hēngā a-sē-yē, cham a-hai-poi.' A-pān 'Pūon a-fa-tāk hin-cho-in being it-is-not.' His-father-by his-servants tohe-said, 'Cloth bestbringing sil-pi-in, a-khonā khojēm bū-pē-in, a-kēng-ā khonghūp my-son to-wear-give, his-hand-on ring his-foot-on put, shoebū-pē-in, ka-chā hi a-thi-tā-banghing. a-hūng-hing-kit-tāi, mang-in-lē my-80n thishe-died-because, he-came-alive-again, lost-being ka-mū-kit-tāi; tū-wānghin kai-ho nom-tā an nē-aū-tā ūm-taū-tē.' I-saw-again; therefore we merrily rice eating remain-let-us.' Hi-ti-bol-in a-mā-ho a-nom-in a-ūm-tāi. This-doing theymerrily they-remained.

A-song-sūng-in a-chā-pā a-tāpin laū-ā am-ē. A-mā a-in-ā a-hūng-lē That-time-at his-son elder field-in was. He his-house-to he-came-when a-khong-bē a-lām a-gin ka-vāi. A-mān a-soūk khat ko-in. drum-beating dancing sound heard. Him-by his-servant one calling, a-bol-am?' sē-in a-dong-ē. A-soūk-pān a-ho-ē, 'Na-nāū-pā a-hūng-ē; they-do?' saying he-asked. His-servant-by he-replied, 'Thy-younger-brother he-came; a-nā-am-poi a-hūng-ē," sē-in na-pān a-ki-pā-ēn a-pē.' "He he-ill-being-not he-came," so ying thy-father-by he-glad-being rice he-gave." hi ka-yān a-mā lūng-hang-in a-in-ā 'lūn-in' ka-ti-lē a-nūm-poi. his-house-in 'enter' saying he-wished-not. Word this hearing he an gry A-pā hūng-in a-mā a-yolē. A-mān a-pā hēngā a-ho-ē, 'Wēr-in, His-father coming him he-entreated. Him-by his-father to he-answered, 'Look, küm na-thū chom-khat chā-yong hi-yā nang thaū ka-bol-ā nang years these-many thy service my-doing-in thou thy-word once even "kain ka-nūm-hi-ē," ka-ti-hi-ē. Hi-ching-e-lin-yong ka-wol ka-pāitō " me-by I-wish-not," Nevertheless I-said-not. my-friends my-companions ka-hūng-lhon-in nomtā nē-dēng kēl-chā-nū cha-khat bē ni-pē-poi. I-together-with merrily eating-for goat-young-female even thou-gavest-not. one Nang na-süm yaŭsē sūyo-nū hēngā pēn na-chā-pān a-bon-in a-mang-sā-tā giving thy-son-by Thy thy-property all harlots to allhe-wasted na-cbā-pā hi a-hūng-bamē nang-in an na-pē.' A-chu-chē a-pān thy-son thishe-coming thee-by rice thou-gavest.' Thereupon his-father-by a-sē-vē. 'Ka-chā, nang-lē kai tan-laū-bē-ēn kai-yā a-ūm-ē, am vaūsē ' My-son, thee-with I together-being it-is, mine being alla-thi-ding-fēt-lē a-hung-hing-fēt-nin, nang-ā a-hē; na-nāŭ-pā hi thine it-is; thy-younger-brother this he-died-having he-coming-alive, a-man-fēt-lē kū-mūk-fēt-nin, kai-ho nŭi-lē-nüp a-fangē-lē.' he-lost having been I-finding again, merry-ond-glad-to-be weit-proper-is.'

[No. 5.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

THĀDO.

KHONGZĀI.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

SPECIMEN II.

A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A KUKI-NAGA.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ka-pā ka-pù sēi, ton-lāin mi yaūsē hūlā-hūngkon My-father fore-father said, in-early-time people allnether-land-in Khongsāi-lē Mailhai awol a-hai. A-mā-ho dēl they-were. The-Khongsais-with the-Manipuris friends they-were. They cloth a-ki-chū-lhonin; a-nūn chēm-in alāyā a-tānē. Mailhai-pān disputed; their-mother-by dao-with in-the-middle cut. The-Manipuris-by khongmä 1 a-sāan-ē. 'A-nūng a-thāk-ē,' a-tin $_{
m mi}$ tampi a-nūng-ā 'Footmarks are-new,' saying people many afterwards haimāng-trees they-cut. tampi a-baiyē. a-chē, chūchā Mailhai Khongsain nāchang a-sān-ē, hence the-Manipuris many they-are. The-Kukis-by plantains they-cut, they-went, a-nūng-ā a-dontan. 'A-nung a-luit-ē' a-tin $_{
m mi}$ tampi afterwards they-sprang-up. ' Footmarks they-are-old' saying people many a-chē-nūm-ta-poi. Mi a-lhom a-chē-tāi. Chūchā Khongsai a-lhom-ā. they-to-go-not-wished. People few they-went. Hence the-Kukis they-are-few.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our forefathers have told, that men formerly lived in the bowels of the earth. The Khongzāis and the Meitheis were then friends. One day they quarrelled about a cloth, and their mother took a dao and cut it in two pieces. The Meitheis began to cut haimang trees, and finding their footprints fresh many people followed them. That is the reason why the Meitheis are so numerous. The Khongzāis went to cut plantain trees and then ascended into the earth. These footprints, however, looked rather old, and therefore only few people followed. The Khongzāis are, therefore, few.

¹ Manipuri name of a fruit tree.

SOKTE.

The Soktē tribe, which includes the Soktēs proper and the Kanhows, occupy the northernmost part of the Chin Hills. They are found on both banks of the Nankathè or Manipur River. The people to the east of this river call their tribesmen to the west Nwengals, from nun, a river; and ngal, across. The Nwengal country proper extends from the latitude of Molbem on the south, to that of Tiddim on the north. The Soktēs, like all the Northern Chins, assert that their tribe originally lived at Chin-Nwe, a village to the north of their old capital Molbem. They derive their name from the verb sok or shok, go down, $t\bar{e}$ being the plural suffix, and think they are called so because they have 'gone down' from Chin-Nwe.

They trace their pedigree back for six generations, but their first chief of whom anything historical is known is Kantum. He conquered the Nwites who then occupied the northern hills where the Kanhows now live. He also conquered the Yos, the Thādos and the Vaipes. The Yos are still found in the Northern hills and in the hills south-east of Cachar. The Thādos inhabit the hills fringing the plain of Manipur and the Kabaw valley, while the Vaipes have now entirely disappeared from the Chin Hills. Kantum's conquest took place about 1840. His youngest son Yapow succeeded him in the chieftainship, but his eldest son Kanhow had already founded the village Tiddim. Since that time the Soktēs are divided into the Soktēs proper in the south and the Kanhow clan in the north. Kanhow is supposed to have begun to rule about 1848, and his ascension to the throne marks the commencement of raids into Manipur and Burma. The people have in the course of time lost much of their predominance, and are now thoroughly at peace under British rule. The remarks given above are compiled from the following:—

AUTHORITIES-

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. TUCK,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History of the Sokte Tribe on pp. 118 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Account of the Soktes on p. 456.

No specimens of the language have been obtained for this Survey.

SIYIN.

The Siyins occupy the hills round Fort White to the east of the Soktes. To the north they are bounded by the Kanhow clan, and to the south by the Tashons. They are called Tautes or Tauktes in the Manipur records. They call themselves Shī-zāng or Sī-yāng. They think that their ancestors came out of a gourd in the village Chin-Nwe. Afterwards they settled near some alkali spring, from which fact they say that their name originated (shī, alkali). The form Siyin is a Burmese corruption, and we have adopted it from the Burmese. The Siyins think that the father of their race lived thirteen generations ago. The different Sivin clans, such as Bweman, Limkai or Sagyilan, Toklaing, and Twantak, are said to have been founded by his successors. The history of the people in the last fifty years consists of a series of raids and struggles against the Burmans and Tashons. Frequently also the different clans were at war with each other. They hold that 'a man should spend his life in fighting, hunting, and drinking, whilst labour is intended for women and slaves only.' Their reputation is very bad, and Messrs. Carey and Tuck lay down the principle that a Siyin should never be pardoned. They are now controlled from Tiddim, and their number was estimated at 1,770 in 1895. Their country is very thinly populated. For further particulars the student is referred to the authorities mentioned below:-

AUTHORITIES-

Rundall, Capt. F. M., - Manual of the Siyin Dialect spoken in the Northern Chin Hills. Rangoon, 1891.

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Rangoon, 1896. History of the Siyin Tribe, Vol. i, pp. 127 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Note on the Siyins on pp. 456 and f.; Siyin vocabulary on pp. 682 and ff.

The Siyin dialect is comparatively well known through Captain Rundall's Manual. The following remarks are taken from his book. They are only intended to give an idea of the chief characteristics of the language:—

Pronunciation.—The Siyin dialect seems to be rich in vowels, but Captain Rundall does not describe them so exactly that the different sounds can be phonetically fixed. A kind of \ddot{o} occurs. It is described as lying between \ddot{o} and \ddot{o} . The sounds f and r occur occasionally, but seem to be foreign to the language. L usually corresponds to r in Lai. Y and Z are interchangeable. There are apparently at least two tones, one long and broad, and one short and sharp. But most words seem to be pronounced in what is called the natural tone. Captain Rundall gives no information on this point.

Articles.—The numeral *khat*, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender is, when necessary, denoted by means of suffixes. The male suffixes are $p\bar{a}$, for human beings, and tal, for animals. The corresponding female suffixes are $n\bar{u}$ and pui. Sometimes, in the case of nouns of relationship, different words are used; thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: $p\bar{u}$, grandfather; $p\bar{\iota}$, grandmother.

Number.—The plural suffix is $t\bar{e}$.

Case.—The suffix of the agent is $n\bar{a}$; the Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; in the Vocative \bar{o} is prefixed to the noun.

Adjectives.—The adjectives follow the noun they qualify. The particle of comparison is $s\bar{a}ng$. The suffix of the comparative is $z\hat{a}$, and that of the superlative bil.

Numerals.-The first numerals are as follows:-

One		khat.	Six		lāk, luk.	Twenty . khan-nī, som-nī, or kul.
Two		nī.	Seven		salī.	Fifty . som ngā.
Three		$t\bar{o}m$, $thum$.	Eight		lie(t).	Hundred . ya khat.
Four		l₹.	Nine		$kw\bar{o}$.	Transfer & gu mas.
Five		ngā.	Ten		som, khan khat.	

Captain Rundall does not mention any generic prefixes, and in most of his instances no such occur. I have, however, found two, tang, apparently for round things, and kiap, for money. Thus, ā-tui tang som, ten eggs; ngūn kiap khat, one rupee.

Pronouns .- The following are the Personal pronouns :-

 $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, I; $k\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, we: nang- $m\bar{a}$, $n\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, $n\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{a}$, and nang, thou, you: $am\bar{a}$, he; $am\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, they. Shorter forms occur as prefixes. See verbs, below.

The Interrogative pronouns are a-kō or akwō, who? akwi and kwēi, which? a-bāng and bāng, what?

Verbs.—Pronominal prefixes are generally used before verbs in order to denote the person of the subject. They are ka, $k\bar{\imath}$, I; ka, ku, we: na, $n\bar{\imath}$, thou, you: a, he, they.

The verb substantive $h\bar{i}$ seems to be added to all tenses. The root, with this addition, is used to denote present and past time.

The suffixes of the Past time are $y\bar{o}$ and $t\bar{a}$, to which $h\bar{i}$ is added.

The suffix of the Future is $t\bar{u}$, to which $h\bar{z}$ or $w\bar{e}$ is added. Tu also occurs as a post-position meaning 'for.'

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are o, plural wō, tān, tēō, and tēun. The negative imperative is formed by adding hi-yāo or yāo.

The root alone is used as an *Infinitive* or *Verbal noun*. I have not found instances of an *Infinitive of purpose*.

The root alone is also used as a *Relative participle*, prefixed to the qualified noun. *Adverbial participles* are formed by a kind of reduplication; thus, ka-kap, crying. The suffix of the *Conjunctive participle* is \bar{a} . A *Noun of agency* is formed by adding $p\bar{a}$.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of saying 'I am struck' we must say 'he struck me.' Sometimes, however, verbs, such as ngat, $d\bar{o}$, and $kh\bar{a}m$, to suffer, are used, and sentences are formed such as hong- $v\bar{a}t$ $k\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ ka-ngat-hi, striking I suffer.

Compound verbs are used in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. They supply the place of adverbs, as in all connected languages.

The Negative particles are $b\bar{o}$, bong, $ng\bar{o}l$, al, and $bw\bar{e}$. They are immediately added to the verb or its suffixes, before the final $h\bar{i}$.

The Interrogative particles are yim, mo, nge, and ne.

The preceding remarks have no other aim than to make it possible to use this dialect for comparison of grammatical structure. For instances illustrating them, and for fuller particulars the student is referred to Captain Rundall's Manual. A list of standard words and phrases, printed below, has been taken from the same source.

RÄLTĒ.

The Ralte dialect is spoken in the Lushai Hills between Tui Dan and Dhaleswari, to the south of Vanbang, and in the Cachar Plains. The figures reported are as follows:—

Lushai Hills Cachar Plains		:	:	:	:	:	•		18,000 (?)133
Cuonar I mino	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	(.)200
						To	FAL		18,133

In the Cachar Plains the Deputy Commissioner gives 399 as the total of Rāltē. Saimar, and Langrong, without saying how many speakers there are of each. The Rāltēs have come down from the Cachar Hills to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division in the plains since the Census of 1891. Mr. Soppitt found them in the Cachar Hills and says about them:—

'These people have only very lately come from Lushai-land, and there are no great number of them in British territory. In Cachar (in a village near Nemotha) they are commonly spoken of, and looked upon, as Lushais. They may, perhaps, be looked upon as being the link between the real Lushais and the people now called Kukis.'

Mr. Soppitt classes them as an off-shoot of the Jangshen tribe. Most of the Raltes are found in the Lushai Hills, but they have not been settled there for a long time. Colonel Elles quotes the following statement by Mr. McCabe:—

'The Raltes are a low caste tribe of Kukis, who are alleged to have come from the north, and to have been brought under subjection by the Duliens, who migrated from the Chin Hills. They have distinct social customs, as well as a marked difference in dialect, and are not allowed to intermingle with the higher castes. A separate portion of the village is assigned to them, and, if a human sacrifice is necessary, they enjoy the privilege of providing the offering. They predominate in the Western Lushai villages of Lenkhunga, Kalkhom, and Lalrhima.'

The Raltes have accepted the domination of the Duliens, but are said to have retained their customs and their language. Mr. Davis remarks:—

'They are looked down on by the Duliens, but in more than one northern village the Sāilō chiefs habitually use the Rāltē language amongst their own people, who are almost without exception all members of that tribe. Amongst the Rāltēs, however, the Dulien language is generally understood, though I have come across more than one instance lately in which Rāltēs, both men and women, though they understood the Dulien when they heard it spoken, were unable to use it with sufficient freedom to reply to questions in it. The differences between the two languages are very considerable, and a man who has a very thorough knowledge of Dulien only is quite at sea if addressed in the Rāltē language.'

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Rāltē. It shows that the Rāltē dialect of the Lushai Hills has been largely influenced by Lushēi, the principal language of the district.

The following remarks are entirely based on this specimen, and must be used with caution.

Pronunciation.—It is difficult to come to any conclusion as to the pronunciation of Raltē from the specimen. Long vowels are not marked, but probably every final vowel of a word or syllable is long, just as in Lushēi. The abrupt shortening of a vowel is indicated by adding an h, but this pronunciation seems to be rather indistinct, for we find, for instance, the same words written mu and muh, ka and kah. The same remark holds good with regard to the vowel \hat{a} . We find substituted for it in the same words both a

and o, thus āh or oh, zā or zo, mā or ma, etc. In a similar way we find o for ao, thus no, young; ia and e in pe, pia, give, etc. When o is followed by a vowel a euphonic v is inserted, thus lo-v-a, in the fields; tho-v-ing-a, will arise; a-pe-shi-o-v-u-a, they gave not, etc. After m we occasionally find a euphonic m inserted; thus, a-lut-nuam-m-o-va, heto-enter-wished-not. Euphony seems also to be the reason for our finding the same word written tun and tung, thus, a-hāng-tun-dān-in, he-to-come-now-being-about; but a-hong-tung-ka-a, he arrived now, that is to say we have n before a dental, ng before a guttural. A ch in some cases corresponds to a Lushēi f, thus cha, Lushēi fā, child, chāp, Lushēi fāp, to kiss; lāh-cha-dun, a servant, compare Lushēi hlāh-fā, a hireling. The aspirated liquids do not occur.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language. The numeral 'one,' and indefinite pronouns are used instead of an *indefinite* article; pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, or relative participles supply the place of a *definite* article. Thus, *mi kuai-mã*, a man; *lâh-cha-dun pa-kat*, a servant; a nao-pang-zok, the younger.

Neuns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. Names of animals are neuter when they are not distinguished by generic suffixes. Gender is not distinguished when no ambiguity can arise. Pa denoting males, is the only generic suffix occurring in the specimens. Thus cha-pa, child-male, son; u-pa, elder brother.

Number.—There are two numbers, singular and plural. The number of the subject of a sentence is indicated by the pronominal prefix. See below. When it is necessary to indicate the plural, the suffix ke is used. Thus boi-ke, slaves. This suffix seems to be added to the last part of a compound word though it belongs to the first, thus, vok-chá-ke, pigs, food, lit., pig-foods. A short postposition may be inserted between the noun and the suffix, thus, khut-a-ke, on the hands; but ka-thian-ke lak-a, with my friends.

Case.—The Nominative is formed without any suffix. Thus, na nao a hong-tung-a, your younger brother he came back. The suffix in denoting the agent, is added to a noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb, thus, cha-pa-in a-ti-a, his son he-said. In may be inserted between the different parts of a compound pronoun; thus, mi ku-in-ai-mâ, a certain man, where ku-ai-mâ is the pronoun. No suffixes of the Accusative and the Dative occur in the specimen. The Genitive is denoted by the bare stem preceding the governing word; thus, ro ka-chan-ai, of the property my share. There is apparently no instance of a used as a suffix of the genitive. Van-a mi, the man of the heaven, God, must probably be explained as 'the man in heaven.'

The suffixes of the *Locative* are *in* and *a*; thus *lim-tak-in*, joy-great-in; *khua-a*, in a village. The interjection *he* is prefixed to the *Vocative*, thus, *he pa*, O father. Other relations are expressed by postpositions, such as, *a*, in, to; *lak-a*, with, to; *lam-a*, in the direction of; *chung-a*, against, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case suffixes are added to them, not to the qualified noun; thus, khá-lam la-tak-a, into a very distant country. The suffix of the comparative degree is zák or zok, and that of the superlative ber; thus, nao-pany zák, younger; pha ber, best.

Numerals.—The numerals follow the noun. Only the two first numerals occur. They are pa-khat, one; pa-nih, two, and are identical with the Lushēi forms. Pa is the generic prefix; see Introduction, p. 19.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:— Singular,—

kei, ka, I.

na, thou.

a-ni, a, he.

nai, ai, me.

ka, my.

nangmai, na, thy.

a, his.

ka-ta, mine.

na-ta, thine.

a-mai-ta, his.

Plural,-

ka-u, we.

u, you.

a-u, they.

The forms ka, na, a, and a-u, also occur as pronominal prefixes, see below. The forms ka-u and a-u are compound words, and other words are inserted between the two components. Thus, ka-mu-leh-ka-u, we saw-again, where the first ka is the pronoun; a-pa-nih-u, they two.

A Reflexive pronoun is perhaps i in i-mu-leh-ka a-hi-e, mutually (i.e., by us) seen again he is.

The Demonstrative pronouns are hi, hi-hi, this; chu, chu-chu, that.

There is no *Relative pronoun*, its place being supplied by the use of participles or verbal nouns. There are only two instances in the specimen, *lam-la tak-a a om lai-in-a*, at the time at which he was very far of; *hi na cha-pa hi na shum cha-zo-vek-tu*, this your son who entirely wasted your property.

The only instance of an Interrogative pronoun is i-ha, what? Thus, chu i-ha hi-tah? that what is?

The *Indefinite pronouns* which occur in the specimen are kuai-ma, a certain; ku-ma, any one; i-kha or i-kha, some, whatever; i-ma, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I; ka-u, we: na, thou: a, he, she, it; a-u, they. When the subject is a neuter noun the prefix a is also used to denote the plural; thus, vok-in a chak, the pigs atc.

The verb is inserted between the two parts of the plural prefixes, thus, a-pe-shi-o v u-a, they gave not. Compare also below, Imperative and Present participle. The prefixes are dropped in the imperative and after nai, ai, me.

The root alone is freely used to denote the present and past tenses; thus *a hi*, he is, or was. The particle *e* may be added; thus *a hi-e*, he is. The suffix *a* is used in the same way; thus, *a ti-a*, he said. When the sentence is dependent on a subsequent clause to complete the meaning of the speaker (compare below, Conjunctive participle), this *a* may be translated 'and', the conjunction *leh*, and, being only used to connect words, not sentences. Thus *a ti-a a zât-a*, he said and he asked.

The suffix of Past tenses is ka, ka-a, thus, a kel-ka-a, he went. The suffix tah in i-ha hi-tah, what is that? is also a suffix of the past or completed action. A kind of Perfect is effected by adding the verb substantive; thus, a hong-dam-leh-ka a-hi, he came alive again it is, he has indeed revived.

The suffix of the Future is ing, ing-a, thus ka tho-v-ing-a, I will arise; ka ti-ing, I will say.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ah, oh, plural $u \cdot a$; thus, $pia \cdot ah$, give; thei-oh, listen; tal-u-a, kill you. The first person plural is formed by the prefix i, and the suffix ing; thus, i-cha ing, let us eat. Compare Future, above.

The *Infinitive* is formed without any suffix, thus; chak-vah, to eat. The suffix of the infinitive of purpose is ang, nang, ang-in; thus, lim-nang, in order to rejoice; pia-ang-in, in order to give. Compare the use of ang in a-mai-ta-ang, for his sake.

The suffix of the *Present participle* is lan, leng. There are no instances of a participle referring to the first person, to the second person singular, or the third person plural. In the second person plural un is prefixed to lan or u is prefixed, and a suffixed. The former method seems to be due to the influence of Standard Lushēi where n is the common plural suffix in the pronominal prefixes. In the third person singular the termination seems to be leng. This participle is substituted for the imperative when more than one forms of the mood follow each other, the last one only remaining in the imperative. If ma be inserted between the verb and the ending, the meaning becomes 'although.' Thus, han-la-thuai-un-lan, you bringing quickly; han-la-u-lan-a, you bringing; hi-ma-leng, that being although, nevertheless.

The locative suffixes a and in are used in forming Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. Thus hin-kial-in ka thi-dán-a, hungering I am about to die; a bo-v-a ka-mu-leh-ka-u a hi, he having been lost has been seen again by us. The suffix a is very freely used after all tenses, see above.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus, na shum cha-zo-vek-tu, your property's waster.

There is no Passive voice; ka-mu-leh-ka-u a-hi, he was found again, literally means 'we saw him again it is,' 'we certainly saw him again.'

Compound verbs are freely used and suffixes are then added to the last component. Thus, Causatives are formed with tik; thus, han-bun-tik-u-a, cause him to wear. Desideratives are formed with nuam, to wish; thus, a lut-nuam-mo-v-a, he to-enterwished-not. The verb dán has the meaning 'to be about;' thus ka thi-dán-a, I am about to die. Other words used as the last part of compounds are shen, to spend, completely; puih, to help; leh, again; thuai, quickly; vek, entirely; em, exceedingly, very; záh, zo, to the last; and the prefixes ha, han, upwards or towards; zu, down, etc.

The Negative particle is o, thus ka hi-o, I am not; lut-nuam-m-o-va, to enter wished not.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. The genitive precedes the governing word. Adjectives and numerals follow the word they qualify. Demonstrative pronouns seem to be put at the beginning of the clause.

[No. 6.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

RĀLTĒ.

(Lushai Hills.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.,

'He A-nao-pang-zok-in, ku-in-ai-mâ cha-pa pa-nih Mi . 0 got.The-young-more-by, twoheMan a-certain-by sons chu A. shum pia-âh,' ti-a. ka chan-ai ai a ro pa, said. Hisproperty that give,' hefather, property-of sharemuNi-shât-o-tak-a a-nao-pang-zok-in hâm-a. a-pa-nih-u lak-a the-young-more-by his Days-long-not-very-in divided. them-two tokel-puih-ka-a. la-tak-a \mathbf{a} khâ-lam khâm-vek-a shum a-reng-in a hebrought. country far-very-to collecting-entirely allgoods shum chu a a om-a, Chu-mi-chun nuam-lu-tuk-in that heremained, hisproperty he comfortable-very-being There tak-in chu nase chu khâ-lam shen-zâh-ve-leh ho-ral-tik-ka-a. A great-in thattroublethatcountry He spent-entirely-when wasted. khua-a kuai-mâ lam \mathbf{Tin} chu ta-sham-a. a-tam-ka-u-a, chak-ang a Then that place village-in a-certain he had-exhausted. foodthey-hungered, vok-châ-ke zu-pang-a, chu mi chun lak-a chuna na-shem-in a pigs-food give-in-order-to with there work-doing he down-went, that man that-by chak, kâm vok-in chu I-khâ shâl-la. a-lo-lam-a that Whatever food the-pigs-by they his-fields-direction-to sent. i-ma a-pe-shi-o-vu-a. A ku-ma nuam-em-em-a, a-ni-pah-in chak-vah a anything they-gave-not. Hehim-by-also to-eat-full he wished-very-much, any-one chak-shen-o-va lak-a lâh-chadun-ke châ nei 'Ka harh-leh-ve-leh, pa to-eat-finishing-not got rice'My father withhired-servants awake-again-when, thi-dân-a. ka .Ka kei la-chu hin-kial-in hi-to-va a-tam-vei-u-tuah, to-die-am-about. I I hungry-being here they-many-very, Ι even $_{
m mi}$ van-a lak-a ka ha-shoi-ing-a, "He pa, pa tho-ving-a father, sky-in man against " O go-say-will, father toI arise-will min cha-pa ti-shual-a, aleh nang-mai mit-muh-in thil ka nameyour son toeye-sight-in did-wrong, mything I your and na lak-a loh-chadun pa-khat bang-in ai bâl-tei-âh " hi-o; tak vuah make," likeone bear worthy 1 am-not; you with servant la-tak-a kel-ka-a. Chu-ti-chun lam ka ti-ing.' Tin a tho-va a lak-a a way far-very-at Then went. I say-will.' Then he arose him tohea ir tai-a, a na-mua; a khâ-ngaih-a, a pa-in om-lai-in-a ran, his chest he he he being-time-at his father-by he loved, saw,

chuk-tuah-a, a châp-a. A lak-a a cha-pa-in, 'He pa, van-a mi chung 'O father, sky-in man against embraced, he kissed. Him tohisson-by, thil ka ti-shual-a, ka min leh nangmai mit-mu-in na cha-pa a-vuah eye-sight-in thing Idid-wrong, my name your your sonandto-bear ka hi-o,' a ti-a. Hi-ma-leng a pa-in boi-ke lak-a, 'Puan \mathbf{a} tak worthy I am-not,' he said. Nevertheless his father-by his slavesto, ' Cloth han-la-thuai-un-lan khut-a-ke pha-ber choi-tik-u-a, a zung-buh. besthere-bringing-quickly-you to-wear-cause, hands-on hisrings, khe-a-ke pheikok han-bun-tik-u-a, she-bang-no thao tak chu han-la-uhis feet-on bootsput, a-cow-young fat very that here-bringinglan-a tal-u-a. Lim-tak-in i-cha-ing, hi ka cha-pa hi a thi a-hong-nang-Joyfully let-us-eat, this my son this he dead-was you kill. he-camea bo-va ka-mu-leh-ka-u a hi,' a ti-a. Tinlim-tak-in alive-again he-is, he lost-was we-saw-again he is,' he said. Thenjoyfully a-om-pan-ka-u-a. they-to-be-began.

Tin a cha-pa u-pa-zâk lo-va om, in-a hong-tun-dân-in i-kho sonold-more fields-in was, house-to arrive-about-being sometum-ri leh a-lam-thâm-u chu a thei-ka-a. Tin kuai-mâ a sham-a, drum-sound and their-dance-sound that he heard. Thensomebody he called, 'chu i-ha hi-tah?' a ti-a a zât-a. A lak-a. ' na nao he said he asked. that what is? Himto, 'your younger-brother he hong-tung-ka-a, him-tak-a a mu-leh-a vang-in na pa-in se-bâng-no safe-quite he seeing-again on-account-of your father-by came-back, a tal-a,' a ti-a. Tin a in-a lai-na-a lut. fat-very this-indeed he killed,' he said. Then he angry-getting house-in he to-enternuam-mo-va, \mathbf{a} pa a hong-dak-a a. them-a. Hi-ma-leng a wishing-not, his father he came-looked-out he persuaded. Nevertheless his father lak-a, 'Thei-oh, kum khâ hi-chan na na ka shem-a-a, na thu la-hi ka year every now-till your work I 'Listen, did,your word even oi-o-ngai-shi-o-va, ka thian-ke lak-a lim-nang kel-cha nai to-obey-not-considered-never, myfriends with rejoice-to kidmepe-ngai shi-o. Chu-ti-in hi na cha-pa hi nâ-chi-zuak lak-a to-give-(you)considered-never. Butthisyoursonhere harlots na shum cha-zo-vek-tu hi a hong-kel-ve-leh a-mai-ta-ang se-bâng-no your goods ate-up-entirely-who he he returns-when his-sake-for chu-na na lat-vei-a,' a ti-a a don-a. a lak-a, 'Ka cha-pa ka Tin fat that-for you kill, he said he replied. Then him to, ' My son melak-a na om-reng-ho-va, ka-ta a-piang na-ta a hi-e. Lim takleh with you remain-regularly, mine whatever thine is. Joy. greatand tak-a om a pha-ho-va. Hi na nao hi thi happiness great-in to-live it good-is. This your younger-brother this he dead-was he hong-dam-leh-ka a hi. A. bo i-mu-leh-ka a-hi-e,' ti-a. came-alive-again he is. He lost seen-again he-is,'

PAITE.

It has already been stated on p. 55, that the Lusheis call all the hill tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head Poi, or Pai. It has also been pointed out that most of the Central and Southern Chin tribes tie their hair up in this way. The Pois of the Southern Lushai Hills all speak dialects belonging to the Central Chin sub-group. See below, pp. 107 and 115. A thousand individuals in the North Lushai Hills have been returned as speaking $Pait\bar{e}$. This word is simply the plural of pai or poi, mentioned above, and Paitē should accordingly be supposed to be a Central Chin dialect. As a matter of fact, however, the dialect is more closely related to the Northern sub-group, and may conveniently be described as the connecting link between both groups.

There is now no village in the Northern hills composed altogether of people speaking Paitē, but there are a few speakers in every Lushēi village. They have accepted the Dulien domination, and are usually considered as one of the branches of the Mizaos.

Compare below, pp. 127 and f.

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Paitē, and this translation is the basis of the remarks on Paitē grammar which follow:—

Pronunciation.—The abrupt shortening of a vowel indicated by a following h is apparently not very decided, for we find the same words written le and leh; lo and loh; zd and zdh, etc. Spellings such as ngai or ngei, may or may not represent different pronunciations. The word pe, to give, becomes pia before i. The i of the suffix in may be dropped after a vowel; thus, a-ma-n, he; pa-n or pa-in, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, lo-v-a, in the fields. Perhaps also the n in lim-na, in joy, is euphonic. The consonant g, which does not occur in Lushēi, is common; thus, gil, also written ngil, corresponds to Lushēi ril, stomach. The verb tung, to come, is also written tun; from nek, to eat, is formed i-ne-di, let us eat; the numeral 'two' is written pa-nhi and pa-ni. Interesting is the word ki-loh, corresponding to Lushēi lhâh, wages. Compare above, p. 16.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language, indefinite pronouns and the numeral pa-khat, one, being used as an *indefinite* article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, or relative participles supplying the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender.—Nouns denoting animals, unless the gender is specially distinguished, seem to be neuter. Thus we find vok-in a nek, the pigs ate, where the singular pronominal prefix is used before the verb. Only one suffix denoting gender occurs in the specimen, viz., pa, denoting males, in ta-pa, son.

Number.—There are two numbers, singular and plural. When the plural is marked, the suffix te is used, thus, boi-te, slaves; vual-te, friends.

Case.—The Nominative, Accusative, and Dative are formed without any suffix. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to a noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb. Before nei, to possess, have, a is used instead in mi kua-hiam-a ta-pa pa-nhi a nei-a, a man had two sons. The Genitive is expressed by prefixing the stem to the governing word; thus a vok an, his pigs' food. In van-a tung-a, before heaven, the pronoun a seems to be suffixed to van to form a genitive, lit., the heaven its top-in.

The suffixes of the Locative are in and a; thus, lai-in, time-at; lo-v-a, fields in.

The *Vocative* takes no suffix, but the interjection he may be prefixed; thus, pa or he pa, O father.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as lak, lak-a, to, with; lam-a, in the direction of; tung-a, against, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case endings are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus gam la-tak-a, country distant-very-to.

The suffix of the Comparative is zā, zāh, more; thus, lian-zāh, bigger. The Super-lative degree is formed by adding ber, very, most, to the positive; thus, hoi-ber, best; thao-ber, very fat.

Numerals.—The numerals which occur in the specimen are pa-khat, one; pa-nhi or pa-ni, two. They follow the word they qualify. Pa is the generic prefix; see above, p. 19.

Pronouns.—The following Personal pronouns occur:—

Singular,-

ke, ka, I.

na, you.

a-ma, a, he.

ka, my.

nang-ma, na, your.

a, his.

nang-a, yours.

Plural,-

ka—u, we.

u, a - u, they.

The forms ka, I; na, you; a, he; ka - u, we; a - u, they, are used as pronominal prefixes; see Verbs, below.

The following *Demonstrative pronouns* seem to occur: hi, hi-ai, this; hu, hu-ai, that; ha or kha, that; ku, that; mi, that.

There is no Relative pronoun. Participles and verbal nouns are used instead; thus, na ta-pa ná-chi-zuak lak-a na sum ne-zo-vek-tu, your son harlots with your property spent-entirely-who.

Bang seems to be the Interrogative pronoun 'what?' thus, hu-ai bang a-hi-ta, that what is it? A demonstrative pronoun added after an interrogative clause conveys the idea of relativity; thus, vok-in bang-poh a nek, ku-chu a-ma-n leng ngil vah a-nek a-ut-em-em-a, the pigs whatever did they eat? that-even he also his-stomach full to-eat he-wished-much.

The following *Indefinite pronouns* occur,—kua-hiam, a certain; kua-ma, someone, or, with the negative, nobody; bang-poh, some, what-ever; bang-ma, with the negative, nothing.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I, ka—u, we; na, thou; a, he, a—u, they. The verb is inserted between the two parts of the plural prefixes, thus, ka mu-non-ta-u, we saw again. When the subject is a neuter noun, the singular prefix a is also used to denote the plural, thus, vok-in a nek, the pigs ate. The prefixes are dropped in the imperative (see below). After kua-ma, anyone, the plural prefix is used, the first part of it being, however, apparently dropped, thus, kua-ma-in bang-ma pe-shi-kei-u-a, anybody anything gave-not. In the clause a ta-pa lian-zāh lo-v-a om, his son the big more the-fields-in was, the prefix seems to have been fused into one sound with the preceding a of lo-v-a.

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The root alone is used to denote present and past tense; thus, a hi, it is; om, he was. The suffix a is usually added; thus, ka hi-a, I am; a chi-a, he said.

The suffixes of *Past tenses* are ta and ka; thus, a thei-ta-a, he heard; a go-ta, he has killed; huai bang a hi-ta, that what happened? Ka, which is the common suffix in Ralte, only occurs once, in a pai-ka-a, he went.

The suffix of the Future is di, di-a; thus, ka chi-di, I will say.

The suffixes of the *Imperative* are in, or ah, oh, plural u-a. The first person plural is formed by prefixing i to the future tense. Thus, pia-in, give; the i-oh, hear; bunshak-u-a, put on; i-ne-di, let us eat.

The *Infinitive* or *Verbal noun* is formed without any suffix; thus, om, to remain (in happiness is good). Postpositions and adverbial expressions are often added, and in this way adverbial clauses are effected; thus, na-shen-in, work-doing-in, working; a-omlai-in, his-being-time-at, when he was. The suffix of the infinitive of purpose is di or di-in; thus, pe-di-in, in order to give. Compare lim-na-di, in order to rejoice; a-ma-a-din, for his sake.

Adverbial and Conjunctive participles are formed with the locative suffixes a and in. The former is in common use after all tenses, see above. Of the latter the following is an instance: na-shen-in, working. Another participle is formed by adding la; thus, on-la-meng-meng-un-la, here-bringing-quickly-you, and on-la-un-la, here-bringing-you. In these forms the pronominal element un of the second person plural is prefixed to the suffix la. A participle in the third person singular is perhaps hi-ma-le in hi-ma-le leng, that although-being even, nevertheless. A Noun of Agency is formed by the suffix tu; thus, ne-zo-vek-tu, he who entirely wasted.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I am seen' we must say, 'somebody sees me.' Thus, ka mu-non-ta-u-a a hi, we saw him again it is, he has been seen again by us. Other instances do not occur. But the following seem analogous: a hong-dam-non-ta-a ka hia, he having come alive again I am; a hoi-a ka hi-a, that good being I am.

Compound verbs are very extensively used. Thus we find the verbal prefixes hong, up, as in hong-tho, rise up; on, towards, as in on-la, bring, and va, towards, as in va-pang, go and stay. Causatives are formed by adding shak; thus, bun-shak, to cause to wear, to put on. Desideratives are formed by suffixing nuam; thus, lut-nuam, to wish to enter. Other compounds are formed with non, again; shen, to finish; shin, to be about; thek, always; vek, entirely; zo, till the last, etc.

There are two Negative particles, lo, corresponding to the Lushēi form, and kei; thus, nek-shen-lo-va, to eat finish not; ka hi-kei, I am not. Both are combined in ka oi-lo-ngei-shi-kei-a, I to-obey-not-considered-not, I did not disobey.

[No. 7.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

PAITÉ.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

pa-nhi a nei-a. A-nao-pang-zâ-in kua-hiam-a ta-pa he had. The-young-more-by Man a-certain sons twohis lak-a, 'He pa, go ka chan-ai on-pia-in,' chi-a. pa valuables-of share said. 0 ' father, my give,' father to. lak-a hâm-a. Ni Chin \mathbf{a} sum-te pa-ni-u shât-lo-tak-in abothwithhe divided. Daylong-not-very-in Then his goodsthea-vek-in khâm-a, gam \mathbf{a} la-tak-a n ao-pang-zâ-in sum \mathbf{a} entirely he collected, goodscountry far-very-to young-more-by heom-a Huai-a nuam-lu-tuk-in a sum mang-shak-ta-a. pai-pih-ta. luxuriously-very he lived his goodsThere hewasted. went. mang-mung-in khâ-lam mun na-sha-tak-in a A itlost-when that village neighbourhood exceedingly propertyHista-sama. nek-di \mathbf{Mi} lamkua-hiam lak-a a-tam-a-vok-u, a they-hungered, eating-for he was-in-want. Thatcountry-of a-certain with Huai-in pe-di-in lo va-pang-a. a vok an a na-shen-in foodworking hewent-stayed. Him-by hispigsgive-to his fields nek, ku a hâl-a. Vok-in bang-po kâm a chu a-man lam-a Pigs-by what-ever husks they ate, thateven him-by direction-to he sent. vah a-nek a ut-em-em-a, kua-ma-in bang-ma pe-shi-kei-u-a. leng ngilanyone-by anything full to-eat he wished-much, gave-not. alsobelly 'Ka lak-a ki-lo-fa-te nek-shen-lo-va pa an A harh-non-mung-in, · My withservants foodeat-finishing-not father awake-again-when, Hegil-kial-in shi-shin-a. ke la-chu hiai-a ka a-tam-tam-tâh, nei · I to-die-am-about. I here belly-hunger-in many-many-very, even have "Pa, va-gem-di-a, van-a Ka tho-di-a lak-a tung-a pa "Father, to go-say-will, heaven against arise-will my father I hih-shual-a, min ta-pa nang-ma mit-mu-in thu ka a-zat your did-wrong, nameyour to-bear eye-sight-in thingsI mysonki-loh-fa pa-khat bang-in on-bâl-tei-âh," tak ka hi-kei. lak-a na like me-make," worthy am-not, you withservant one chi-di.' Chin hong-tho-va lak a pai-ka-a. Hu-chi-in a a pa fatherThen tohewent. Thereupon say-will. up-arose his khâ-ngai-a la-tak-a a-om-lai-in na-mu-a, a gam 8 pa-n a heforgavefar-very-in his-being-time-at his father-by he saw, way

lak-a chuk-tuah-a tâp-a. \mathbf{A} ta-pa-in, a âm tai-a a kissed. Himto hisson-by, embraced he his breasthe ran mit-mu-in nang-ma thutung-a le van-a $\mathbf{m}\mathbf{i}$ 'He pa, eye-sight-in thing I against and your father, sky-in man 0 hi-kei.' ka tak vuah min na ta-pa min-di-in Ka hi-shual-ta. to-bear worthy Iam-not, naming-for sonMyname you did-wrong. ' Puan hoi-ber lak-a, boi-te 8 Hi-ma-le-leng pa-in \mathbf{a} chi-a. ' Cloth to, besthis father-by his servants Nevertheless said. he kut-a zung-bun-te on-shil-shak-u-a, on-la-meng-meng-un-la a, hand-on hisrings here-bringing-quickly-quickly-you here-put-on (him), ber bun-shak-u-a, se-bâng-no thao phei-kok khe-a bun-shak-u-a fatcow-young very to-put-on-cause, boots feet-on to-put-on-cause hisHiai ka ta-pa \mathbf{a} i-ne-di. tak-in lim go-shak-u-a, on-la-un-la great-in let-us-eat. son heThisjoy kill, here-bringing-you ka-mu-non-ta-u-a hi, a a mang-a a hong-dam-non-ta, shi is, ithewe-saw-again lost-was came-alive-again, he dead-was he chi-a. said.

hong-tun-shin-in lo-va in-a lian-zâh om, ta-pa Chin come-arrive-about-being fields-in was, house-to big-more son Then hisChin boi thei-ta-a. a-lam-thâm-u ging leh tum bang-poh Then slave heard. their-dance-noise hesound and drumsome hi-ta? chi-a \mathbf{a} dong-a. \mathbf{a} ' Huai bang a sham-a, kua-ma . saidasked. happened? he he what it'That called, a-certain hong-tung-ta-a, him-tak-a a-mu-nona 'Na nao A lak-a, safely his-seeing-againyounger-brother came-arrived, he' Your to, Himchi-a. go-ta, se-bang-no thao tak а pa-n ziak-in killed, hesaid. thathecalf fat veryyour father-by on-account of lut-nuam-kei-a, a pa a honga heh-a in-a Chin \mathbf{a} hecamefather he to-enter-wished-not, hishouse-in got-angry Then he'Thei-oh, kum-khua lak, Hi-ma-le-leng a pa hem-a. dak-a father Listen, continually to, Nevertheless persuaded. hislooked-out he oi-lo-ngei-shika thu leng shem-a, na ka nahiai tan na to-obey-not-consi-Ι word even your I did, worknow tillyour non-pe-ngei-shi-. kel leng lak-a lim-na-di vual-te ka kei-a, me-to-give(-you)-conrejoicing-for even goatwithfriends dered-not, my sum ne-zona lak-a nâ-chi-zuak Chin ta-pa na kei-a. goodsate-upwithyour harlots son Then your sidered-never. kha tak thao a-ma-a-din se-bang-no hong-pai-ve-leh hi \mathbf{a} vek-tu thatfat very calfhis-sake-for came-went-when heentirely-who he

chi-a dâng-a. Chin lak-a, 'Ka na-go-shak-vial-a,' na Then him said $^{\circ}$ Myyou kill, he heanswered. to,nang-a vek a hi. lak-a om-thek-a, ka neih-poh, ta-pa, ka na you live-always, I having-whatever, yours entirely withson, ka hi-a. Hiai Lim tak leh kipale tak-a om a hoi-a great-in to-live it good-is ThisJoy great and happiness Iam.your hong-dam-non-ta-a ka hi-a. \mathbf{A} hi shi \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a} nao Iam.he dead-was came-alive-again younger-brother thishe ka-mu-non-ta-u,' chi-a. mang a said. lost-was we-see-again-did, he

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STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

					:		 1		ı		
En	glish.			Khongz	āi (of 1	fanipur).	Thado (Nága Hi	lls).	Sairang (C	achar Plains)	
1. One .	•			Khat .			Khat		Khāt .		
2. Two .				Ni .			Ni		Nih .		
3. Three				Thūm .			Thūm		Thome .		
4. Four .				Li .			Li		Lih .		
5. Five .				Ngā .		:	Ngā		Ngā .		
6. Six .				Gūp .			Ghu-up (gūp)		Ghup .		
7. Seven				Sagi .			Saghi (sāgi) .		Sāhgi .		
8.'Eight				Gēt .			Ghet		Gait .		
9. Nine .		•	•	Kū .			Ко		Koh .		
10. Ten .				Som	٠.		Som, (shom) .		Sohm .		
11. Twenty				Som-ni .			Somini, (shom-ni)		Sohm-nih		
12. Fifty .				Som-ngā .			Som-ngā, (shom-ng	ā) .	Sohm-ngå		
13. Hundred				Jā-khat .			Zā-khat		Jhā-khāt		
14. I .				Kei .			Kēn, (kēi).		Kēi .		
15. Of me				Kei(-thū)			Kei-ma .		Kēi-sik-ā		
16. Mine .	•			Kei-ā .			Ditto		Kēi-jāh .		
17. We				Kei-ho .			Kei-ho		Kēi-ho .		
18. Of us				Kei-ho(-thi	i) .		Kei-ho loi .		Kēi-ho-sikā,	kēi-a-thu	
19. Our •				Kei-ho-ā			Kei-ho lō-u .		Kēi-ho-tā		
20. Thou .				Nang .			Nång		Nāng		
21. Of thee				Nang(-thū)) .		Nång-zhein .		Nāng-sikā, n	āng-thū	
22. Thine				Nang-ā .			Nāng-ho .		Nāng-ā .		
23. You .				Nang-ho .			Ditto .		Nâng-û .		
24. Of you	•			Nang-ho(-t	hū)		Nāng-ho-jein .		Nāng-ū-sikā,	nāng•ū-thu	
25. Your .				Nang-ho-ā			Hē-ho		Nāng-ū-bā		
F.C.G									-		

IN THE NORTHERN CHIN SUB-GROUP.

Kuki of	Cach	ar (C	ampbel	1).	Siş	in (Runda	11).	Eng	;lish.
Khāt					Khat		•	1. One.	3 3 44 4
Ni .					Ni .			2. Two.	27.00
Tüm					Tōm, thu	n.		3. Three.	
Li			•		Lā.			4. Four.	*
Ngā					Ngā .	• •	•	5. Five.	
Gūp			٠		Lōk, luk			6. Six.	
Sāgi					Sali .			7. Seven.	
Git	•				Liet .			8. Eight.	
Ku		•			Kwō .			9. Nine.	
Som		•	•		Sōm, or kl	an khat		10. Ten.	
Som-ini			•		Khan-nī, s	ōm-nī, os	kul.	11. Twenty.	
Som-nga			٠		Som ngā			12. Fifty.	
Jā-khāt		•	•		Ya khat .	s :	•	13. Hundred.	2
Kei		•	•		Kē-mā .			14. I.	
Kei-mān)	•			Ka, or kī	•		15. Of me.	
Kei-mä			•					16. Mine.	
Kei-ha	•	•	•		Komā .			17. We.	
Kei-hām)	•			Ka, or ku	•	•	18. Of us.	
Σēi-ha.	•	•	•					19. Our.	
Vāng .	•				Nang-mā,	nā-mā, na	ing	20. Thou,	
Nāng-mā	in)			-	Nā, nī .	•	•	21. Of thee.	
kāng-mā						••••		22. Thine.	
Nāng-ma)		•		Nō-mā .		•	23. You.	
Näng-mä	-ha)		•		.50			24. Of you.	
lāug-ha						*****		25. Your.	

Eng	lish.			Khongzāi (of Ma	mipur).		Thâdo (Nága Hil	ls).	Sairang (C	achar Plains)).
26. He .				A-mā .		•		Hihu, Hichē, (hipā)	Āh-mā .		_
27. Of him				A-mā(-thū)				Chē		Āh-mā-sīkā,	āh-mā-thu	ı
28. His .				A-mā-ā .				Chē		Āh-mā-tā		
29. They				A-mā-ho .				Ho, (hitě-ho) .		Āh-mā-ho-tā		
30. Of them				A-mā-ho(-thi	ī)			Te-ho		Āh-mā-ho-tā ho-tā-thu.	-sika, āh	-Iú
31. Their				A-mā-ho-ā				Hiche-te-ho .		Āh-mā-o-bā		
32. Hand				Ka-khot .				Khot, (khūt) .		Khut .		
33. Foot				Ka-kēng.				Ka-khin, (kēng)		Kēing .		
34. Nose				Ka-nā(k-)				Nā-kui		Nāk .		
35. Eye				Ka-mit .				Kā-mit		Mith .		
36. Mouth	,			Ka-kam .				Ka-kām-mu .		Muh .		
37, Tooth				Ka-hā .				Hā		Hāh .		
38. Ear .				Ka-bil .				Ka-bil-kol .		Korh .		
39. Hair				Ka-sam .				Sam		Sāhm .		
40. Head			٠.	Ka-lüchang				Luchang .		Luh .		
41. Tongue				Ka-lei .				Lē, (lēi)		Lēih .		
42. Belly				Ka-woi .				Oi		Oēi, or dhil		
43. Back				Ka-tüngtün				Tongtā, (tūntān)		Tungtu .		
44. Iron				Thi .				Thi		Thih .		
45. Gold				Sanā .				(Sonā)		Rānkichē		
46. Silver		٠		Dangkā, tang	gkā			Thi, (shūmchēng)		Dhānkā .		
47. Father	•			Ка-ра				Pā		Kā-pā .		
48. Mother				Ka-nū .			٠.	Nu		Kā-nuh .		
49. Brother				Ka-nāū .				Ke-ū-pā (elder), Ko (younger).	e-nāu-pā	Sopih, kā-ū- nāu-pā (yo	pā (elder), unger).	, l
50. Sister				Ditto .		•		Ke-ü-nu (elder), Ke (younger).	-nāu-nū			
51. Man				Pasal .				Мі		Mih .		
52. Woman				Nūmai .				Numē, (nūpi) .		Nuh-mēi		

Kuki of	Cacle	sr (Cam	pbeli).	.	Siy	jin (I	Rundall)			English.
Ā-mā		,		1	A-mā		•		•	26. He.
(Ā-mā-h	a.)									27. Of him.
Ã-mā										28. His.
Ā-mā-o				-	A-mā-tē					29. They.
Ā-mā-ha						,	·			30. Of them.
Ā-mā-ha	ю						•••••			31. Their.
Khut		•	•		Khut		•			32. Hand,
Keng					Piang					33. Foot.
Nā					Nā					34. Nose.
Mit			•		Mit					35. Eye.
Mu					Kām		٠			36. Mouth.
На					Hā					37. Tooth.
Kul					Bil					38. Ear.
Sam					Sam					39. Hair.
Lu			•		Lū				٠	40. Head.
Lēi					Lēi, kad	n				41. Tongue.
Oē			•		Ngil, ân	ı				42. Relly.
Tüngtü	n.				Nüng					43. Back.
					Chī, kh	i .				44. Iron.
Sānā					Kham					45. Gold.
Dankā					Ngũn	•			٠.	46. Silver.
(Nā-)pa	š .				Pā	•			•	47. Father.
(Nā-)n	ű.				Nū ·					48. Mother.
Ū					Ū (elde	r);	nàū (y	oung	er) .	49. Brother.
Ā.		•			Ū-nū (youn	(eger)	elder),	nā	นี-มน์	50. Sister.
Pasāl					Mi-hing					51. Man.
Nu-mā	i .			1	Nūmē		•			. 52. Woman.
					1	_				KC. G.—91

Eng	glish.			Khongzā	(of Man	ipur).		Thado (Nága Hill	s) .	Sairang (Ca	char Pl	ains).	
53. Wife				A-ji .		•		Ka-zhi-nu, (ka-ji)		Kā-jih .			
54. Child				A-nāŭsēn		•		Cha-pang .		Nāh-u, i.e. nā	a	•	
55. Son				A-chā-pā	•	•		Chapang-pa, (chā-pi	i) .	Kā-chā .			
56. Daughte	r.	•		A-cha-nū	5			Chapang nu, (chā-n	ung) .	Kā-chā-nuh			
57. Slave		•		Souk, sho	•	• •		Sho		Kā-soh .		•	
58. Cultivate	or	•		Laū lhū mi	, laū-bo	l-pā		Lo balhā		Loubolā .			
59. Shepher	d.	•		Yām ching	mi .	•				Bēl-ri-kēl-ngā	kā	•	
60. God		•		Thilhā, Pat	ēn .			Pathe, (Pāthēn lūnji	ii) .	Pāthēin .			
61. Devil	•			Käüsi (dem	on)			Tilhā		Thilāh .			
62. Sun	•			Ni .				Ni, nisha (nisā)		Nisāh .			
63. Moon			٠	Lhā .				Lha-ta (lhā) .		Flā-pā .			
64. Star				Āsi .				Āsi		Ahsih .			
55. Fire				Mēi .				Mei		Mēih .			,
66. Water				Tūi .	•			Ti (tūi)		Tūi .			
57. House		•		In		•		In	. :	Ihn .			9
68. Horse	•			Sakol .	•			Sakal (sakor) .		Chākor .			
69. Cow	•			Bong .	• •			Bong (chilhat)		Chherāk-pi	•		
70. Dog				Hui-chā .	• ·			Wi-chā		Ūi .			,
71. Cat .				Mēng-chā				Meng-chā (mēng-tē)		Mëng-të .			
72. Cock				Ā-chal .				A-chal		Āh .	- .		
73. Duck				Ātot .			•	Watowat .		Bāh-to .			,
74. Ass	•			Gādhā .				Not known .		Gāddā .	5 .		
75. Camel				Ŭt .	•			Ditto .		Māh-kinkāng			
76. Bird				Wa-chā .				Vā-chā		Bāh .			•
77. Go .				A-chē-tā	•	٠.		Cheye-tā (chē-tan)		Chi-thang			
78. Eat .				A-nē-tā .	·.			Ne-tha		Nëh-thäng			
79. Sit .				A-taŭ-tā .				Thou-tha (tov-in)		Tou-thang			

Kuki of	Cac	har (Cam	pbell).	.	Siy	in	(RundsH).			English.
Ji .			•	-	Ji, yi				-	53. Wife.
Chā					Та	•				54. Child.
Chā-pā	•				Та-ра					55. Son.
Chā-nu			•	-	Ta-nű					56. Daughter.
Su					Īn-tiang,	sa	1.	•		57. Slave.
Loubalā										58. Cultivator.
(Sil)	•									59. Shepherd.
Pā-thion								200		60. God.
Thilā			•							61. Devil.
Nisa		•			Ni .					62. Sun.
Tblā	•	•	·.		Thā			:		63. Moon.
Āsi		•			A-shī					64. Star.
Mēi					Mē, mī					65. Fire.
Tui	٠,				Tui				•	66. Water.
In .		•			Īn .					67. House.
Sā-kar					Shipu		•			68. Horse.
Sirāt					Khui					69. Cow.
Ui.	•		•		Wī	•				70. Dog.
Meng-te					Ngiāū					71. Cat.
Ā.			·.		Ā-lui					72. Cock.
Vā-ta					Ngūnpai	i				73. Duck.
							·····			74. Ass.
										75. Camel.
Vā					Wuchier	m	•			76. Bird.
Chin				٠.	Pai-o					77. Go.
Nën ·					Nē-o					78. Eat.
Tou-vin			٠		Тō-о	•				79. Sit.

	Engli	sb.			Khong	zāi (of	Manip	ır).		Thado (Nás	ga. Hills	ı).		Sairang (Cacl	ar Pla	ins).	
80.	Come			-	A-hūng-t	ā				Hungo (hong-	tan)]	Hong-in .			•
81.	Beat			-	A-wa-tā					Vo-tang-u (vo-	tan)			Vo-thäng			
82.	Stand				A-ding-ē					Ding-tang				Ding-in .		•	
83.	Die		•		∆ -thi-tā					Ti-ta .				Āh-thi .			
84.	Give				I-pē-tā		•			Ē-pē-tang (ēpē	n)			Kā-pēh .			
85.	Run				A-lhai-tā					Lhāi-tang				Flā-jing .			
86.	Up.				Wān					Chunglam			-	Āh-chūng-ā			
87.	Near				A-nāi					Kekomma, näi	-chā			Ih-hing-ā			
88.	Down				Sang-san	g				Noilam .				Noi-āh .			
89.	Far .				A-gam-la					A-gam-la	·			Gām-lā .	•		
90.	Before				A-ma-sā					A-mā-sāng				Mā-sang-ā			
91.	Behind				A-nüng-	i		•		Ka-nung-sang	(nūng	glam)		Núng-ā .	•		
92.	Who				Kci			•		Koi .				Nāng (sic)			
93.	What				Iham					Iham .			.	Ih-hijam			
94.	$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{h}\mathbf{y}$			•	I-dā-ā, i-	bol-ā				I-din-em.		٠		Ih-siēm .			•
95.	And				Yōng, lē	•	•			Adang jhong				Îh			
96.	But		٠.	•	Ditto					A-hi-lē .				Āh-hi-bāng			
97.	If .				Lē (a i	ermin to the	ation root o	alway	ys s).	Ditto .				Bähngin			
98.	Yes .	•			Hoi					Henghē (a-hi-	nāi)			Ouh .		•	
99	No .	•			A-hi-poi			•	٠	Kenunipu (a-	om-po	i)		Ohoi .	•		
100.	Alas .	•			O ka-nū	ka-pā				Heishā .				Oheh .			
101	A father	•	•	•	Ka-pā k	hat		•		Ке-ра .	•			Khāt-kā-pā, o	r pā k	hāż	
102	Of a fath	er	•		Ka-pā k	hat-ā		٠		Ke-pā .	•	٠		Khāt pā-sikā	, -thu		
103	To a fath	er			Ka-pā k	hat-hë	ng			Ka-pa-hē	•			Nā-pā hing-ā			,
104	From a fa	ather			Ka-pā k	hat-hē	ng-ā			Ka-pa-hengā				Nā-pā hing-ā	ā-hon	g	
105	Two fath	ers			Ка-ра а	-ni	•			Ka-pa-te-ni				Pā nih .			,
106	Fathers		•	•	Ka-pā ta	am-pi				Ka-pa-te-ho				Kā-pā ngēi, o	r kā-p	ā ho	

	Kuki of	Cachar	(Camp	bell).	1	Siy	in (Ru	ındall)			Euglish.
H	ang-in	•		•	•	Hōm-pai-	to			-	80. Come.
C	hāk-in					Vato					81. Beat.
D	ing-in					Ding-o					82. Stand.
T	hin	•				Thi-o			٠		83. Die.
E	-pin	•		•		Pē-to	•	•	٠		84. Give.
E	Cla-jin					Tai-o	•		•		85. Run.
V	ān-chā	ng		•		Tungā		•	٠		86. Up.
Ā	i-hing-ā		•			A-nai	•	•		-	87. Near.
I	Nāi	•	•			Nuē			•		88. Down.
0	läm-ch	eng		٠		Khu-lā	•	•	•		89. Far.
7	Kā-chār	ıg-a	•	٠	•	Маі-уа	• .	•	•		90. Before.
1	Nük-chi	ing		•		A-nung-	lam	•	•		91. Behind.
1	Kai-hān	1	•	•		Akwō	•	٠	٠	•	92. Who.
1	ham	•	•	•	•	Bāng	•	•		•	93. What.
1	I-dingni	inēm	•	•	•	A-bang-	kőm	•	٠	•	94. Why.
1	Adang	•	•	•	•	Lē	•	٠	٠	٠	95. And.
]	Eē	•	•	•	•	Tō-hī-yo	ung	•	٠	•	96. But.
-	Chute	•	•	٠		Lē	٠	٠	•	٠	97. If.
	Uhm	•	• •	•		A-hī	•	٠	٠	•	98. Yes.
	Ēēn ēēr	ı .	٠	٠		Hi-bō	•		•		99. No.
	Āh-āh-	āh	٠	٠		Nű-ong	ē pa-o	ngē	•	•	100. Alas.
-	Nā-pā l	chāt		•		Pā khai	t .				101. A father.
	Nā-pā	٠	٠	٠	•	Ditto	٠	٠	٠		102. Of a father.
-	Nā-pā	hing-ā	•	٠							103. To a father.
	(Nā-pā	hing	pādi:	n)	٠	Pā kha	t pān		•	•	104. From a father.
	Nā-pā	ni		٠	•	Pā nī	•		٠	•	105. Two fathers.
	Nā-pā	ngai		•		Pā tē	٠	•		•	106. Fathers.

		71 - 7 (6 W-1)	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
English.		Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Inado (Naga Ams).	Saliang (Cacuar Fiatus).
107. Of fathers		Ka-pā tampi-ā	Ka-pa-te-ho	Kā-pā ngēi sikā, or -thu .
108. To fathers		Ka-pā tampi-hēng	Ka-pa-hoi	Kā-pā ngēi hingā
109. From fathers .		Ka-pā tampi-hēng-ā	Ka-pa-hoi-hengā .	Kā-pā ngēi hingā ā-hong .
110. A daughter .		Ka-eba-nū khat	Cha-pang-nu	Kā-chā-nuh khāt
111. Of a daughter .		Ka-cha-nū khat-ā	Ditto	Kā-chā-nuh khāt sikā, or -thu.
112. To a daughter .		Ka-cha-nū khat-hēng -	Cha-pang-nu-hengā .	Khat kā-chā-nuh hingā .
113. From a daughter		Ka-cha-nū khat-hēng-ā .	Ditto .	Khāt kā-chā-nuh hingā ā- hong.
114. Two daughters .		Ka-cha-nū a-ni	Cha-pang-nu-te-mi .	Kā-chā-nuh nih
115. Daughters .		Ka-cha-nū tampi	Cha-pang-nu-ho	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi, or ho .
116. Of daughters .		Ka-cha-nű tampi-á	Cha-pang-nu-ho heugā .	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi sikā, or thu.
117. To daughters .		Ka-cha-nū tampi-hēng	Ditto	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi hingā .
118. From daughters		Ka-cha-nű tampi-héng-ä	Ditto	Kā-chā-nuh ngēi hingā ā- hong.
119. A good man .		A-fa-tā pasal khat	Khat a-pā	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh .
120. Of a good man .		A-fa-tā pasal khat-ā .	Khat a-pā hengā	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh sīkā, or thu.
121. To a good man .		A-fa-tā pasal khat-hēng .	Ditto	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh hingā
122. From a good man		A-fa-tā pasal khat-hēng-ā	Ditto	Khāt mih ā-phā-jilēh hingā ā-hong,
123. Two good men .	• .	A-fa-tā pasal-ni	Ni a-pā	Nih mih ā-phā-jilēh
124. Good men .		A-fa-tā pasal tampi	A-pā-ho	Mih-ho ā-phā-jilēh
125. Of good men .		A-fa-tā pasal tampī-ā .	A-pā-ho hengā	Mih-ho a-phā-jilēh thu .
126. To good men .		A-fa-tā pasal tampi-hēng .	Ditto	Mih-ho ā-phā-jilēh hingā .
127. From good men		A-fa-tā pasal tampi-hēng-ā	Ditto	Mih-ho ā-phā-jilēh hingā ā-hong.
128. A good woman .		A-fa-tā nūmai khat	Numei a-pā	Khāt nuh-mēi ā-phā-jilēh .
129. A bad boy .		A-fa-lo pasal nēyaū-chā khat.	Chapang a-pa-lu	Khāt puchāl-chā mighilon .
130. Good women .		A-fa-tā nūmai tampi .	Numei a-pa-ho	Nuh-mēi-ho ā-phā-jilēh .
131. A bad girl		A-fa-lo númai nēyauchā .	Chapang-nu a-pa-Iu .	Khāt nuh-mēi-chā mighilon
132. Good		A-fa-tā	A-pā (ā-phāi)	Ā-phā-jilēh
133. Better		A-ni sāng-ā faiyo	Hichē a-pā	Ā-phā-dhomē
		,		

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.	<u>.</u>		•
Nā-pā ngai si	Pā tē	107. Of fathers.			
Nā-pā ngai hingā		108. To fathers,			<i>.</i>
(Nā-pā ngai hingā pādin) .		109. From fathers.	1.		
Chā-nū khāt • • •	Tā-nū khat	110. A daughter.		E 8 0	
Chā-nu	Ditto	111. Of a daughter.			
Chā-nu hingā		112. To a daughter.		s s s	
(Chā-nu hingā pādin) .		113. From a daughter.			
Chã-nu ni	Tā-nā nī	114. Two daughters.		8	
Chā-nu-ha	Tā-nū tē	115. Daughters.		٠	
Ditto	Ditto	116. Of daughters.			.0
1		117. To daughters.		2	
		118. From daughters.			
Pasāl khāt ā-fā	Mi-hīn phā khat	119. A good man.		1 V	
Pasāl khāt ā-fā-pā chu	Ditto	. 120. Of a good man.			
Pasāl khāt ā-fā-pā hingā		121. To a good man.	V		
(Pasāl khāť ā-fā-pā hingā pādin.)		122. From a good man.	•		
Pasāl ni ā-fā	Mi-hîn phā nī	. 123. Two good men.		••	
Pasāl ā-bonin ā-fā	Mi-hīn phā tē	. 124. Good men.		348 X	
Ā-bonā pāsal āfā-ha .	Ditto	. 125. Of good men.	*		•
- 11 <u>1111</u> 1		126. To good men.			
Pasāl āfā-ha hingā pādin		127. From good men.			
Nu-māi khāt ā-fā		. 128. A good woman.		4	
Chā-pāng-pā khāt ā-fā-lon		. 129. A bad boy.			
Ā-fā nu-māi-ha ā-bonin		. 130. Good women.		(c) 8 f	
Chā-pāng-nu khāt ā-fā-lor		. 131. A bad girl.			
		. 132. Good.			
Haŭ pādin āfāi •	. A-mā sāng phā .	. 133. Better.		•	

	Engl	isb.			Khongzåi (of Manipur).	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).
134.	Best			•	Tampi sāng-ā faiyo	Hi-zhat-pi-la hiche a-pā	Ā-phā-pēhnē
135.	High				A-sāng-ē	A-sang	Ā-sāng-ēh
136.	Higher				A-ni sāng-ā a-sāng-ē	Hiche sängnin ä-säng .	Ā-mā nehki ā-sāng-ēh
137.	Highest				Tampi sāng-ā a-sāng-ē	Abonchā sāngni ā-sāngi .	Ā-sāng-pēhnē
138.	A horse				Sakol a-chal khat	Sakol khāt	Khāt sākor chāl
139.	A mare	•		-	Sakol a-nū khat	Sakol a-nū	Khāt sākor pi
140.	Horses				Sakol a-chal tampi	Sakol-tē-ho	Sākor chāl-ho
141.	Mares				Sakol a-nū tampi	Sakol a-nu-ho	Sākor pi-ho
142.	A bull	•			Bong a-chal khat	Bâng chal	Khāt shērāk chāl
143.	A cow				Bong a-nū khat	Bâng a-nu	Khāt shērāk pi
144.	Bulls	•			Bong a-chal tampi	Bâng chal-ho	Shērāk chāl-ho
145.	Cows	•			Bong a-nű tampi	Bâng a-nu-ho	Shērāk pi-ho
146.	A dog				Hui a-chal khat	Ui-chā	Khāt uī chāl
147.	A bitch		•		Hui pi khat	Ui-chā a-nu	Khāt uī pi
148.	Dogs	•	•		Hui a-chal tampi	Ui-chā-ho	Ŭi chāl-ho
149.	Bitches	•	•		Hui pi tampi	Ui-chā a-nu-họ	Ŭi pi-ho
150.	A he goat		٠		Kēl a-chal khat	Kel-chā a-chal.	Khāt kēel-chāl
151.	A female	goat	•		Kēl a-nū khat	Keel-chā a-nu	Khāt kēel pi
152.	Goats		•		Kēl tampi	Keel-chā-ho	Kēel-ho
153.	A male de	er	•		Sangāi a-chal khat	Shā chāl	Khāt sāhjuk chāl
154.	A female	deer			Sangāi a-nū khat	Shā piu	Khāt sāhjuk pi
155.	\mathbf{Deer}	•	•		Sangāi	Shā-ho	Sāhjuk
156.	Iam	•	•		Kai ka-hē	Keyi ka-ŭmi	Kēi kā-umēh
157.	Thou art	•			Nang na-hē	Nang na-umi	Nāng nā-umēh
158.	He is	•			A-mā a-hē	Hichē a-hi	Āh-mā ā-umēh
159.	We are	•			Kai-ho ka-hē	Kē-ho ka-ūmi	Kēi-ho kā-umēh
160.	You are				Nang-ho na-hē.	Nang-ho [n]a-ŭmi	

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).		Siyin (Rundall).	English.
Ā-fā changnang pēne		Phābil	134. Best.
Ā-chāng .		Sāng	135, High.
Ā-chāng-a · ·		A-mā sāng sāng	136. Higher.
Ā-chāng changnang pēne		Sång-bil	137. Highest.
Sākar khāt •		Shipu tal khat	138. A horse.
Sākar khāt ā-nu	•	Shīpū pui khat	139. A mare.
Sākar ā-boṇin		Shipû tal të	140. Horses.
Sākar ā-nu ā-bonin .	•	Shīpū pui tē	141. Mares.
Sirāt chāl khāt	•	Khui tal khat	142. A bull.
Sirāt ā-nu khāt .	•	Khui pūi khạt	143. A cow.
Sirāt chāl ā-bonin .		Khui tal të	144. Bulls.
Sirāt ā-nu ā-bonin .	٠	Khui pui tē	145. Cows.
Ūi khāt		Wi tal khat	146. A dog.
Ŭi nu khāt	•	Wi pui khat	147. A bitch.
Ŭi ā-bonin		Wi tal tē	148. Dogs.
Ūi nu ā-bonin	:	Wī pui tē	149. Bitches.
Kel chāl khāt	٠.	Kiel tal khat	150. A he goat.
Kel ä-nu khāt		Kiel pui khat	151. A female goat.
		Kiel tē	152. Goats.
Sāzu ā-chāl khāt .		Sachchi tal khat	153. A male deer.
Sāzu ā-nu khāt .		Sachchi pui khat	154, A female deer.
Sāzu ā-bonin	٠.	Sachchi	155. Deer.
		Kē-mā ka-hi	156. I am.
Nang-mā nā-um-ē .		Nang-mā na-hi	157. Thou art.
Ā-mā ā-um-ē		A-mā a-hi	158. He is.
Kē-ha kā-um-nāi .		Kō-mā ka-hi	159. We are.
Nāng-ha nā-um-ē	•	Nō-mā na-hi	160. You are.

English.	,	Khongzāi (of Mar	nipur).	Thādo (Nága Hills).	Thādo (Nága Hills).				
161. They are .		A-mā-ho a-hē .	•	Hichē-ho a-ūmi					
162. I was .	•	Kei ka-haiyē		Kei kā-umi	٠.				
163. Thou wast		Nang na-haiyé		Nang nā-umi	•				
184. He was		A-mā a-haiyē .	•	Hichē ā-umi	٠.				
165. We were .		Kei-ho ka-haiyē		Kei-ho kā-umi					
166. You were .		Nang-ho na-haiyē		Nang-ho ā-umi .					
167. They were	•	A-mā-ho a-haiyē	•	Hichē-ho ā-umi .					
168. Be	•	Ka-hē	٠,	Um-ta					
169. To be .	•	Ka-hā		A-hi-ding a-hi-te .					
170. Being .	•	Hing	•						
171. Having been				Hichē a-hi-te					
172. I may be .		Kei hi-thai-nāng-ē	•	Kēhihatning katē ,		· .			
173. I shall be .		Kei hi-nāng-ē .	•	Kē ke-hi					
174. I should be		Ditto .		Kē ke-hilē a-pā .	•				
175. Beat .		A-wa-tā		Va-tang	•				
176. To beat .		A-won-a-ding .	•	Vung-ka-ti	•	• .			
177. Beating .		A-vo-in .		Vongē					
178. Having beaten		Wong-lē	٠	A-vo-ta	•				
179. I beat .		Kein ka-wē .	•	Ken ka-voi		**	ini 700		
180. Thou beatest		Nang-in na-wē	٠	Nang-in ne-voi.			······		
181. He beats .		A-mān a-wē .		Hichē a-voi					
182. We beat .		Kei-hon ka-wē		Ke-hong vongē	-		•••••		
183. You beat .		Nang-hon na-wē	•	Nang-ho vongë	•	5	······		
184. They beat .		A-mā-hon a-wē	• :	Hi-te-ho a-voi	•				
185. I beat (Past Te		Kein ka-wa-tē .					··· ···		
186. Thou beatest Tense).	(Past	Nang-in na-wa-të	•		-	2 g			
187. He beat (Past !	Tense) .	A-mān a-wa-tē.	•						

Kuki of Cachar (Cam	pbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.
Ā-mā-haā-um-ē		A-mā-tê a-hi	161. They are.
Kēi-jin kā-umēi		Kē-mā kā-ōm-tā-hi, or ōm- yō-hi.	162. I was.
Nāng nā-um-in			163. Thou wast.
Ā-mā ā-um-in .			164. He was.
Kē-ha kā-um-ēi			165. We were.
Nāng-ha nā-um-in			166. You were.
Ā-mā-ha ā-um-in			167. They were.
Ā-hi-je	: .	От-5	168. Be.
Ā-hi-te		Om	169. To be,
Ā-hi-tāe • •		*****	170. Being.
Ā-hi-jou-tāe .		Ŏm-ā	171. Having been.
Kei hinange .			172. I may be.
Kei-ma hing-kā-te		Kē-mā ka-ōm-tū-hi	173. I shall be.
Kei hi-ding ka-hin			174. I should be.
Chāk-in		Vā-tō	175. Beat.
Ā-chā-te		Vā (t)	176. To beat.
Ā-chāk-in		Vā-vāt	177. Beating.
Ā-chā-nāi		Vāt-ā	178, Having beaten.
Kei-jin kā-chā .		Ka-vāt-hi	179. I beat.
Nāng-in chā-in		Na-vāt-hi	180. Thou beatest.
Ā-mān ā-chā-in		A-vāt-hi	181. He beats.
Kē-han kā-chā-un			182. We beat.
Näng-han nä-chä-un			183. You beat.
Ā-mā-han ā-chā-un			184. They beat.
		Kā-vā-tā-hi	185. I beat (Past Tense).
			186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
•••••			187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.		Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thado (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains)
188. We beat (Past	Tense) .	Kei-hon ka-wa-tē .		
189. You beat (Pa	st Tense)	Nang-hon na-wa-tē .		
190. They beat (Pa	st Tense)	A-mā-hon a-wa-tē .		
191. I am beating	: •	Kein ka-wē	Ken ka-voi	
192. I was beating		Kein wong-am-tē	. Ken ka-va ā umgme .	
193. I had beaten		Kein ka-wa-tē	. Ken ka-voi-jhenge .	
194. I may beat	٠.	Kein wa-thai-näng-ē.	. Ken ka-voi-tenā	
195. I shall beat		Kein wo-nāng-ē	Ken vong-ē	• •••••
196. Thou wilt beat		Nang-in wo-nang-na-të		
197. He will beat		A-mān wo-nān-tē .		
198. We shall beat		Kei-hōn wo-năng-ē .		
199. You will beat		Nang-hōn wo-nang-na-tē		
200. They will beat	•	A-mā-hon wo-nān-tē.		
201. I should beat		Kein wo-nang-ē	Ken ka-voi a-pā	
202. I am beaten		Kei-mā-ē wē	Keye ē voi	•••••
203. I was beaten		Kei-mā-ē wē-tē	Kē ē voi-jhengē	•••••
204. I shall be beate	n .	Kei-mā-ē wō-a-ding a-hē	Kē ē vozhenge	•••• 4.5 s
205. I go .		Kei ka-chē	Kē ke-chē	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
206. Thou goest		Nang na-chē	Nang che-tā	- mini-
207. He goes .		A-mā a-chē	Hichē a-che-ta	e entent to the
208. We go .		Kei-ho ka-chē		
209. You go .		Nang-ho na-chē		
210. They go .		A-mā-ho a-chē	 .	
211. I went .		Kei ka-chē-tāi	Ke ke-chē	. in.m
212. Thou wentest		Nang na-chē-tāi	Nang nā-chē	*** ***
213. He went .	• .	A-mā a-chē-tāi	Hichē a-che-tā.	
214. We went .		Kei-ho ka-chē-tāi		

. . . .

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.
		188. We beat (Past Tense).
		189. You beat (Past Tense).
		190. They beat (Past Tense).
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā ā-hi-jē		191. I am beating.
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā-lē .	Ka-vā-tē-hi	192. I was beating.
Kei-jin kā-chāk-ā		193. I had beaten.
Kei-jin cha-thāi-jing-ē		194. I may beat.
Kei-jin chā-ing-ē	Ka-vāt-tū-hī	195. I shall beat.
		196. Thou wilt beat.
		197. He will beat.
		198. We shall beat.
•••••		199. You will beat.
		200. They will beat.
Kei-jin kā-chā-ding ā-hain.		201. I should beat.
Kei-mā-ei chā-ei	******	202. I am beaten.
Kei-ei chā-in ā-hin		203. I was beaten.
		204. I shall be beaten.
Kei-mā chitāng-e	Kē-mā ka-pai-hi	205. I go.
Näng-mä chitän		206. Thou goest.
Ā-mā chin		207. He goes.
	·	208. We go.
		209. You go.
		210. They go.
Kei-mā kā-chin ā-hi-je	Kē-mā ka-pai-tā-hi	211. I went.
(ang-mā nā-chin ā-hi-je		212. Thou wentest.
-mā ā-chin ā-hi-je		213. He went.
		214. We went.

Eng	lish,	Khongzāi (of Manipur).	Thado (Nága Hills).	Sairang (Cachar Plains).			
215. You went		Nang-ho na-chē-tāi		··			
216. They wer	nt .	A-mā-ho a-chē-tāi					
217. Go .		Chētang	Che-tā	******			
218. Going		Chē-in	Chitang	······			
219. Gone	• •	Chē-tāvin	A-che	· ·····			
220. What is	your name ?	Na-min i-bi ham?	Nang min ihang?	Na-min ih-ham?			
221. How old	is this horse	Sakol hi küm i-yā ham?.	Hichē sākol kūm izhā ham?	Sākor kum i-jā hi-tām? .			
222. How far to Kash		Hiwā pansān Kashmir rhūn i-chan hiyam ?	Hiya konin Kashmir i-chān ham ?	Hi-kaumā Kashmir i-chān lām?			
223. How man there in house?	your father's	Na-pāa-in-ā a-chā pasal iyā ūmam?	Nang-pā a-chā izhāt ham?	Nā-pā ihn-ā nāo i-jāh ūm- ām?			
224. I have w way to-	alked a long	Kei tū-ni gamlapā ka-chē .	Ke tu-ning gham-chengpi hūmkāhi.	Tū-ning gām-lā-ta kā-chēi .			
225. The son of married	of my uncle is l to his sister		Kē-pa shopi cha-pā, hichē shopi-nu to ākichang.	Kā-pāngā nāo-in hi-chē-pā sar-nū giin ā-nēi-jēh.			
226. In the he dle of the	use is the sad ne white horse		Sakōl kang phâ in-a ā-ume	Sākor kān sāpāl ihn-ā ā- um-ēh.			
227. Put the his back	saddle upor	A-düng-tün-ä safo koyo .	Sakol phâ haugkani .	Sāpāl ā-chunghā koi-tā .			
228. I have be with ma	eaten his son any stripes.	Kein a-mā a-cha-pā molin hawōpin ka-wōi.	Huchē-pa chā havo-in ke-vo	Kei-jin che-pā nāo-hi kā- oboh-ē (i.e. kā-wo-ē).			
229. He is gra the top	zing cattle or of the hill.	Hūicha mūolā a-mān sēl kaching-ē.	Hichē bong tengtāng a-chēlā.	Che-pā nāohin ching-lāng-ā sherak ngā.			
230. He is sitt under t	ing on a horse hat tree.	Hūicha thingkēlā a-mā sakol toin a-ūmē.	Huchē ting noiyā sakol chunga ā-tou-a.	Che-pāhin thinbull noiah sākor chungā ā-choungē.			
231. His brot than his		A-nāū-nū sāng a-nāū-pā a-sāng-ē.	Amā sho-pi-nu sāngnin ā-sāng-ē.	U-pā sāngin u-nu-sāngin āh-mā ā-sāng-pēhnē.			
232. The price rupees a	of that is two and a half.	Chūchē man chēng-ni makhāi.	Hichē man cheng-ni makā.	Chē-māng cheng-nih lēh dāngkā-keh.			
233. My father small he		In nēyaŭ ka-pā a-ūm-ē	Huchë in-neyaba ke-pa a-umë.	Hi-chē ihn nēu-a kā-pā ā- ūm-ēh.			
234. Give this	rupee to him	Dangkā hi a-mā-gommā ai- pēn.	Dangka hichēhu ghapi (i.s. hichē hengā pin).	Hi-chē dānkā āh-mā pe- thāng.			
235. Take those him.	se rupees from	A-mā hēngā dangkā ga-lān	Dangka hichē hengna khan latā.	Che-pā hingā dānkā lā- thāng.			
236. Beat him him wit	well and bind h ropes.	A-mā hawopin woin khāwin sūm-in.	Batain numo khây-in unkāntā.	Pāte tākin kāu-in-lang vo- thāng.			
237. Draw we well.	ater from the	Kūhā tūi ga-sokēn	Tih-hu-ā ti rakhaji	Tui khukā tui gu-thāl-thāng			
238. Walk bef	ore me	Ka-masang-a chēn	Ke masanga chetā	Chēi-mā (sic) sā-thāng .			
239. Whose be		Na-nūng-ā koi pasal nēyaū- chā hūngam ?	Ke (sic) nung-sang-a koi chā hūngam?	Nā-nung-sāngā kai nāo- hām ā-hong-ā?			
240. From what the		Nangin chūchē ko hēngā na-han-choham?	Ko-henga nā-choham? .	Khai hengā nā-chohām? .			
241. From a s the villa		Kho hi-ā ūmin tūkān mi khat hengā ka-chok-hē.	Lukana ke-cho-a-hi	Kā-khoubā dukānā kā-cho ā-hi-jēh.			

Kuki of Cachar (Campbell).	Siyin (Rundall).	English.				
		215. You went.				
		216. They went.				
Ā-chi	Pai-o	217. Go.				
Ā-chin-ā-hi-je	Pa-pai	218. Going.				
Ā-chi-tei	Pai-ā	219. Gone.				
Nā-min i-ham?	Na-mîn akwō yim (or bāng yim) ?	220. What is your name?				
Sākar kum i-jāt hi-jām? .		221. How old is this horse?				
Hi-kamā pādin Kashmir i- chan gām-lam?	Kashmir khwō hipan a- bāngtan khulā mō?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?				
Nāng-mā nā-pā in-ā i-jāt chā-pāng-pā um-ām?		223. How many sons are there in your father's				
Kei-mä tu-nin gam-cheng kä ki-choune (?).		house? 224. I have walked a long way to-day.				
Kei-mā kā-pāngā chā-pā ā- mā chā-nu-ta ā-khi-cheng-	 ,	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.				
ē. Sākar ā-ngon jin in-ā ā-um- nāe.		226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.				
Ā-mā-chang-ā jin kām-in .		227. Put the saddle upon his back.				
Ā-mā chā-pā chu kei-mān kā-chā-in ting pumin.		228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.				
Ā-mān ching-lāng chung-ā si-rāt ā-ching-in.		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.				
Ā-mā hi-che thingbul noi-a sā-kar chungā ā-tou-vin.		230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.				
Ā-su-pi-nu sāng-in ā-su-pi- pā ā-chang-e.		231. His brother is taller than his sister.				
Ā-hi man-hi cheng-ni le a-ke man a-hi-jē.		232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.				
Kā-pā hi-che in neu-cha ā- um-e.	Kē-mā pā in miashiō nō sungā tiang-hi.	233. My father lives in that small house.				
Hi-che danka hi ā-mā chu pin.		234. Give this rupee to him.				
Hi-che danka ä-bonin ä-mä hingä lan.		235. Take those rupees from him.				
Ā-mā hi phā-tā-in chā-in, chute khāv-in kān-in.		236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.				
Tuipuma tui thāl-in		237. Draw water from the well.				
Kei-mā mā-chāngā chidain .		238. Walk before me.				
Nāng-mā nungā kai chā- pang hung-ām?		239. Whose boy comes behind you?				
Nāng-in hi-che-hi ko hingā nā chahizam ?		240. From whom did you buy that?				
Hi-che koā dukāndār-pa hingā.		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.				

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CENTRAL CHIN SUB-GROUP.

This sub-group comprises the following languages:-

	_	-					_						
Shun kla	or	Tashō	n, :	spoken	by				• :				39,215
		Zahao		,,	,,								2,000
Lai .				,,	"								23,450
		Lakhe	r	"	,,		٠.						1,100
Lushēi (incl	uding	N	gentē)	spok	en by							40,539
Banjōgi													500
Pänkhű													800
												-	
										To	TAL		107,604
					i					1.0		10	

These languages are closely connected with the northern group, but have still greater affinity to the so-called Old Kuki dialects. The chief point of difference, when compared with Old Kuki, is the negative particle, which is to in the Central languages as in Thado, but usually mak in Old Kuki. Pankhū is the dialect which is most closely connected with Old Kuki.

SHUNKLA OR TASHON.

The tribes generally called Tashons live in the Chin Hills to the south of the country inhabited by the Siyins and the Soktes. To the west they are bounded by the Lushai Hills and to the south by the Lai. Messrs. Carey and Tuck estimated their number in 1895 at 39,215. Their country is the most thickly populated in the Chin Hills. They include the two powerful communities of Zahao or Yahow and Wheno, which were formerly known as Pois, Poi-tē and Pai-tē. Poi is the Lushēi name for the Chins in general, and $t\bar{e}$ is the plural suffix. The Tashons call themselves Shunkla, and under this name they are also known to the southern tribes. Shunkla is the name of a village in the southern part of their territory, and they think that their forefathers came out of a rock at Shunkla. Later on their capital was transferred to Klashun, and the name Tashon is the Burmese corruption of this word. Their chief village is now Falam, and the northern tribes call them Palam-te, inhabitants of Falam. They were constantly at war with the Hakas, and the raids of this latter tribe are supposed to have been the reason for their transferring their capital from Klashun to Falam. After that time they gradually extended their influence over their neighbours. Messrs. Carey and Tuck remark that the Tashon tribesmen do not claim one common progenitor. 'They are a community composed of aliens, who have been collected under one family by conquest, or more correctly by strategy.'

The following five divisions of the tribe are distinguished:-

1. The Shunkla proper.

3. The Tawyan.

2. The Yahow, or Zahao.

4. The Kweshin.

5. The Whenoh.

Of these the Zahaos will be dealt with below. The notes on the other clans are taken from Messrs. Carey and Tuck.

The Shunklas proper are now all dependent on the Falam chiefs and probably all of the same family. Their ancestors lived at Shunkla till about four generations ago when they moved to Klashun. This village was destroyed by the Hakas, and the Shunklas then founded Falam, their present capital.

The Tawyans are said to have no connection with the other tribes administered from Falam. They say themselves that they are Torrs, an independent tribe to the south of the Hakas. They became tributary to Falam by settling down in their territory. After a rebellion they were reduced to perpetual slavery, and they have to carry salt and rice from the plains of Burma to Falam.

We have no information as to the language of the Tawyans. It is probable that it is a southern dialect, different from that of the Shunklas.

The Kweshins seem to be a quite different tribe, and were probably left behind by some of the numerous tribes which have wandered north. They are supposed to be half-breeds of Burman and Kuki blood.

The Whenos are said to be Lushëis who were left behind when the Chins expelled this tribe from the hills. They are said to be identical with the Haulgnos or Hualgnos of the Lushai Hills, who are settled to the south of the Zahaos, and extend towards the west as far as Jaduna, their eastern and southern frontier coinciding with that of the North Lushai Hills. The Shunklas proper are thus the only true representatives of the Tashōn tribe. They were disarmed in the season 1895-96.

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ELLES, COLONEL E. R.,—Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893. Note on the Tashons on pp. 22 and ff.

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. TUCK,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History of the Tashon Tribe on pp. 141 and ff.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Account of the Tashons on pp. 457 and f.

The chief authority among the Tashons is a council consisting of five chiefs. They do not derive their position from birth, but are chosen by the people. Everyone may become a member of the council, provided that he belongs to the Shunkla tribe.

ZAHAO OR YAHOW.

The Zahaos or Yahows are settled in the Chin Hills to the west of the Tashons. The number of their houses is stated to be 1,700. The names Zahao and Yahow are identical, z and y being interchangeable in most of the surrounding dialects. Colonel Elles states that they are also called Howhuls and Lyen-lyem, and they were formerly also known as Pois. In the Lushai Hills Zahao is returned as spoken by about 2,000 individuals to the south and west of Lungvel.

The Zahaos of the Chin Hills say that once upon a time the sun laid an egg which a Burmese woman picked up. From it their ancestors were produced. They were constantly at war with their neighbours, but defeated them with the assistance of the Falam chiefs. In return they agreed to pay tribute to Falam for ever. They are said to be distinct from the Shunklas.

I have no materials for deciding whether the Zahaos of the Lushai Hills speak the same dialect as those in the Chin Hills. The translation of the parable of the Prodigal Son which is printed below, and for which I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., has come from the Lushai Hills. The word for 'man' used in this specimen is mi-zo, that is, 'a Zo-man,' and it is probable that the Zahaos, like the Lushais and many of the Northern Chin tribes, call themselves Zo. The following remarks on Zahao grammar are entirely founded on the specimen. They are given with the utmost reserve, the more so because I have not succeeded in getting an interlinear translation prepared in the Lushai Hills. The Lushai clerk charged with the translation was only able to add the meaning of some words in the beginning of the specimen, so far as the words and the forms do not differ from Lusha. I have therefore been under the necessity of supplying most of the translation myself, and this must be borne in mind in using the specimen.

Pronunciation.—Long vowels are not marked in the specimen. But it is probable that final vowels of words and syllables are long, just as they are in Lushēi. The signs \acute{a} and o are used for the same sound; thus, $mi-2\acute{a}$ and mi-2o, man. An h after a vowel seems to denote the so-called abrupt tone. Compare Introduction, p. 4. But the writing is inconsistent. Thus, the same words are written $\acute{a}h$ and \acute{a} ; leh and le. The pronunciation of other vowels cannot always be stated with certainty. We find the same words written vua and vuia; ve and vei; i and ei. Concurrent vowels are sometimes contracted; thus, pa-in or pa-n, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, deo-v-in. After m an m is inserted before i in $um-m \cdot i$, lived, was. The consonant k in pek, to give, is sometimes dropped. K seems to be interchangeable with k in thluk or thluh, completely. The k in the latter form marks the abrupt shortening of the sound. S and sh seem to be interchangeable; thus, sum and shum, goods.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral pa-khat, one, and indefinite pronouns may be used as a kind of indefinite article, while pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative phrases supply the place of a definite article. Thus, mi-zo shi-mā, a certain man; a nao-ta-shān-in, his, i.e., the younger; chā no thao zet kha, cow young fat very that, the fatted calf; a-sum chu, his property that; tha tak-i a um lai-a, far very his being time-at, at the time when he was very far.

Nouns.—Gender.—There is only one suffix used to denote gender in the specimen. This is pa in fa-pa, child male, son; u-pa, elder brother. The word vok, pigs, is combined with the plural pronominal prefix; thus, vok-in an ei, the-pigs they ate.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The plural is not marked when it appears from the context. The suffix of the plural seems to be le; thus, boih-le, servants; ka-hoi-le-i-nhena, my friends with. That is sometimes added; thus in-lhá-fa-le-tla, house-servants; zung-khi-le-tla, finger-rings.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative, and the Dative are not distinguished by suffixes. The Genitive is denoted by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing word; thus, ro ka chan-ding; property-of my share. But usually the suffix i is added; thus, van-i mi, the sky's man, the man of the sky. The same suffix is also used in Lai. I is also added to nouns before postpositions, such as nhen-a, with, to; man-a, on account of; rhang-a, for the sake of, these postpositions being originally substantives; thus, a-pa-i nhena, his father to; a-mhu-i mana, his-seeing on-account of, because he saw; a-ma-i rhanga, for his sake. The genitive relation may also be indicated by apposition. Thus, ka mhing na fa-pa-i vua, my name your son-of bearing, to bear the name of your son. The i added to fa-pa before the infinitive vua, to bear, also shows the near connection between the verbal noun and ordinary substantives.

The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to the noun when it is the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, vok-in an ei, the pigs they ate. It is dropped, however, in the first clause before nei, had, where the singular pronominal prefix a shows that the subject is the noun mi-zo, a man, and not fa-pa pa-nhih, two sons.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions such as a, in, to; in, or i, in, to; nhen-a and nhen-i, with, to; rhang-a, for the sake of; man-a, on account of; par-a-thon, before, against, etc. The suffixes a and in or i form locatives and adverbial expressions; thus kut-a, hands-on; thim tak-in, joy great-in, joyfully; tha-tak-i, far very.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and case suffixes are added to them and not to the qualified noun. Thus, khá-lam lha tak-a, country far very-to. The suffix of the comparative is shán; thus, nao-ta shán, young more. An absolute superlative is formed by the addition of bik, most. Thus, tha bik, best.

Numerals.—The only numerals occurring in the specimen are *pa-khat*, one, and *pa-khih*, two. Both are only used to qualify human beings, and *pa* is the generic prefix. They follow the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The specimen contains the following *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kei, ka, I. nang-ma, na, thou. a-ma, a-ni, a, he. ka, my. na, thy. a, his.

ka-ta, mine. i-ta, thine.

Plural,-

kan, we. an, they.

The forms ka, I, kan, we; na, thou; a, he, an, they, are used as pronominal prefixes with verbs. See below. The suffix i may be added in the genitive; thus, nang-ma-i mit-mhu-in, thy eye-sight-in. Compare Nouns, above.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur; hi, and hi — hi, this; chu, and chu — chu, and chui — chu, that; kha, that.

ZAHAO. 111

There is no Relative pronoun. The demonstrative pronouns are used as a kind of correlative; thus, ziang-mā kām vok-in an ei kha, whatever food the pigs they ate, that; chā no thao zet kha, cow young fat very that. Relative clauses are also formed by means of participles and verbal nouns. Thus, tha tak-i a um lai-a, far very he being time-at; na fa-pa na shum ei-thluk-tu, thy son thy property ate-all-who. In the last instance ei-thluk-tu is the noun of agency.

An Interrogative pronoun is ziang-ha, what, in chu ziang-ha shi-kei, that what may it be?

The following Indefinite pronouns occur:-

shi-mã, a certain; ziang-mã, whatever; ziang-lo, some; zo-mhan, anyone; ziang-mhan, anything. Thus, mi-zá-i nhen-a shi-mã, man with a-certain, with a certain man; zo-mhan-in ziang-mhan an pek-shi-lo-v-i, anybody anything they gave not.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur: ka, I, kan, we; na, and i, thou; a, he, it, an, they. After zo-mhan, anyone, the plural prefix is used; thus, zo-mhan an pek-shi-lo-v-i, anyone they gave not. Pronominal prefixes are usually dropped before the imperative, and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun.

The suffix i, probably a verb substantive, is commonly added to the various tenses of the verb. Such forms may be considered as conjunctive participles and are used in most places except where there is a full stop. Instances are given below.

The root alone is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus, a tha, it good is; a nei, he had. The suffixes i, hi, and shi, all various forms of the verb substantive, may be added; thus, a-ti-i, he said; a-shi-hi, he is; an-pek-shi-lo-vi, they gave not. After hi the suffix teh is added in ka shi-lo-hi-teh, I am not. This teh is perhaps identical with the suffix of the past tense.

The suffixes of Past tenses are ta or tak and a; thus, a fe-ta-i, he went; ka-ti-shual-tak, I sinned; an um-tlang-a-i, they to-be-began. The suffix ta seems also to be used in the present tense in order to denote an established fact. Thus, tlak ka-shi-lo-teh, worthy I am not indeed. See above. A kind of Perfect is effected by the addition of the verb substantive to the principal verb. Thus, a rong-nung a shi-hi, he came alive it is, he has come alive again.

The suffix of the Future is kei; thus, ka tho-kei-i, I will arise; ka ti-kei, I will say. This tense is also used in interrogative sentences to denote what might be, just like the German future. Thus, chu ziang ha shi-kei, that, what is it? Compare the suffix ka which denotes the present and past times in Ngentē, Rāltē, Paitē, etc. Another suffix of the future seems to be ing in i-ku-shing, let us make merry. See Imperative, below.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is \hat{a} , $\hat{a}h$, or o; thus, $pe-\hat{a}$, give; thah-o, kill you. A first person plural occurs in i-ku-shing, let us make merry.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or verbal noun. Thus ei-puar a duh-em-em-i, to eat-his-fill he wished-much. This form is used as a substantive governing a genitive; thus, ka mhing hi na fa-pa-i vua tlak, my name this thy son-of bearing worthy, worthy to the bearing of my name of your son. Words such as ve-leh, when; lai-a, at the time, when, etc., may be added. Thus, lha tak-i a um lai-a, far very he being

time-at; him-tak-in a mhu-i man-a, safely his seeing on-account-of. These instances show how little our usual grammatical categories suit these languages.

The Infinitive of purpose seems to be formed by the suffix ding or ding-in; thus, vok râl-tla pe-ding-in, in order to give the pigs food; ei-ding, for eating, food. Ding means 'suitable, fitting' in Lai. It also occurs in l am - ak - nak - ding, in order to make merry. Lâm, to rejoice; ak, perhaps corresponding to the Lai suffix ak which is used to form gerunds (thus Lai ding-ak, for drinking). Nāk is used in Lai to form compound nouns (thus, thi-nāk, something for killing, poison). The meaning of l am - ak - nak - ding, therefore, is perhaps 'in order to have something for rejoicing.' The Lai suffix nak is also used to form participles, and this use seems also to be found in Zahao, in ka-el-nak-um-shi-lo, I transgressing lived-not. Compare the suffix nak which forms verbal nouns in Hallām, Langrong, Mhār, etc.

A Participle used instead of the first of two connected imperatives is formed by adding the suffix la, to which a pronominal element seems to be prefixed. Only one instance occurs, where the pronominal element is o, denoting the second person plural. Thus, han-la-o-la, here bringing you. The pronominal element of the third person singular is perhaps she or se, in shi-kal-she-la, nevertheless, lit. being-even-that.

Conjunctive participles seem to be formed by adding the suffix i; thus a-tho-v-i a-pa-i nhen-a a fe-ta-i, he having arisen his father to he went. This suffix may be added to all tenses. See above. The suffix leh in tlak ka-shi-lo-leh, worthy I-being-not, since I am not worthy, seems to be used in a similar way. Compare Verbal nouns, above.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is the locative suffix in; thus, nha tuan-in a va-tang-i, work doing he went and stayed.

A Noun of Agency is formed by means of the suffix tu; thus, ei-thluk-tu, a consumer. See Relative pronoun, above.

There is no Passive voice. Kan mhu-leh-ta a-shi-hi, by us seen again he is, means literally 'we saw him again it is.'

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes or by suffixing other words. The following prefixes occur:—

Hon, signifying motion upwards or towards; rak, signifying motion away and towards; va, signifying motion from. Thus hon-la, go and bring; rak-mhu, to get sight of; va-rel, go and tell. Causatives are formed by suffixing shak or tir; thus, thah-shak, to cause to kill; bun-tir, to cause to wear, to put on. The word thah, to kill, is itself a causative to thi, to die. The suffix seems to be at or ak. Compare Aimol thak, Thado that, to kill. A similar form is fiat, to send, from fe, to go. Desideratives are formed by adding duh; thus lut-duh, to wish to enter. Other words suffixed in order to form compound verbs are: em-em, much, highly; leh, again; ngai-ngai, certainly, surely; reng, always; shal, again; tak, very; tlang, to begin; ve and vei, also; zik, to be about, etc. Two verbs may, of course, be combined in order to modify the meaning. Thus, rong, to come down; thleng, to arrive; rong-thleng, to come home, etc.

The Negative particle is lo, or shi-lo; thus, a lut-duh-lo-v-i, he to-enter wished not; an pek-shi-lo-v-i, they gave not.

The Interrogative particle is $m\tilde{a}$; thus, shi-lo- $m\tilde{a}$, is-it not? Compare also the use of $m\tilde{a}$ in the formation of indefinite pronouns; thus, shi- $m\tilde{a}$, a certain. Compare Latin nescioquis.

[No. 8.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ZAHAO.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

Hi mi-zo shi-mâ fa-pa pa-nhih a-nei. A-nao-ta-shân-in pa-i nhen-a, This man a-certain sons two he-had. The-young-more-by his father 'Ka ka chan-ding i pe-â,' a ti-i. Chu-leh a sum-le-tha an share you give,' he said. Thereupon his ' My father, goods-of my goods them pa-nhih-i nhen-a a shem-i. Ni bai-te-a a-nao-ta-shân-in sum a-za-ten a he divided. two to Day narrow-in the-young-more-by goods khâm-thluh-i khâ-lam lha-tak-a a fe-ta-i. Chuna-chun nuam-lu-tuk-in collected-completely-and country distant-very-to he went. There luxuriously sum chu a lhao-ral-tir-ta-i. A shen-thluh-ve-leh chui he lived-and his goods that he lost-wasted-made. He spent-completely-when that kha-lam chu na-sa-deo-v-in an tam-ta-i ei-ding a lhâh-sham-i. Chu-leh chu country that exceedingly they hungered-and eat-for he lacked. Thereupon that lei khua-a mi-zâ-i nhen-a shi-mâ nha tuan-in a va-tang-i. Chu mi place village-in man with a-certain work doing he went-stayed. That man that-by Ziang-mâ kâm vok-in vok râl-tla pe-ding-in a rak-hâl-i a fiat-i. Whatever food the-pigs they pigs food give-in-order-to he asked-and he sent. ei kha a-ni khal-in ei—puar a duh-em-em-i zo-mhan-in ziang-mhan an also eat-his-fill he wished-much-and any-one-by ate that he anything they 'Ka pa-i nhen-i in-lhâ-fa-le-tla râl ei-hang-A harh-leh-ve-leh, pek-shi-lo-vi. He awoke-again-when, 'My father with house-servants food eat-finishlo-vi nei an tam-thân, kei shi-khâ hi-tâka ril-rong-in ka thi-zik-ngaibelly-hunger-in I to-die-am-aboutnot have they many-also, Ieven here ngai-i. tho-kei-i ka pa-i nhen-a ka va-rel-kei-i, "Ka pa, I arise-will-and my father toI go-tell-will, "My father, sky-of mi par-a-thon nangma-i mit-mhu-in thilka ti-shual-i, ka mhing hi na your eye-sight-in thing I did-wrong, my name this thy before fa-pa-i vua tlak ka shi-lo-hi-leh, na nhen-a in-lhå-fa pa-khat vek-in i with house-servant being-not, thee one likeson to-bear worthy I pa-i tua-ve-âh", ka ti-kei'. Chu-leh \mathbf{a} tho-vi nhen-a a fe-ta-i. make-also", I say-will". Thereupon he arose-and his father to he went. pan a rak-mhu-i a zang-fah-i a tek-i a-i-thân Thereupon his father-by he saw-and he pitied-and he ran-and his-breast he joinednhen-a a fa-pa-in, 'Ka pa, van-i mi par-a-thân a zuk-i. A son-by, 'My father, sky-of man before and he kissed. Him his

nang-ma-i mit-mhu-in thil ka ti-shual-tak. Ka mhing na fa-pa-i I eye-sight-in thing did-wrong. Mynamethy son vuia tlak ka shi-lo-hi-teh,' a ti-i. Shi-kal-se-la a pan a boih-le-i nhen-a, to-bear worthy I am-not-indeed,' he said. Nevertheless his father-by his slaves tha bik hon-la-o-la hon-shin-tir-o. A kut-a zung-khi-le-tla a 'Cloth good most going-bringing-you on-put. His hands-on finger-rings-also his ke-zaphap-a-le ke-dam rak-bun-tir-o-la, châ no thao zet kha foot-soles-on-also foot-shoes on-putting-you, cow young fat very that going-bringing-you thah-o, lhim-tak-in i-ku-shing. Hi ka fa hi a thi, a hong-nung-shal a shi-hi, joyfully let-us-feast. This my son this he died, he came-alive-again he is, kill, Chu-le 'lhim-tak-in mhu-le-à a shi, a ti-i. he lost-was-and by-me seen-again he is,' he said. Thereupon joyfully they to-betlang-â-i.

began.

u-pa-shân lo Chu-le fa-pa In-a rong-thlemum. Then his son elder-more fields-in he House-to come-arrivewas. tum-ri thâm a thei-i. ziang-lo leh an lam Chu-leh boih some drum-sound and their dancing noise he heard. Thereupon slave about-being 'Chu ziang-ha shi-kei?' a ti-i a shut-i. A nhen-a, 'Na shi-mâ a ko-vi, whatis? he said-and he asked. some he called-and, 'That Hima rong-thleng-ta-i him-tak-in a mhu-i man-a na pa-in châ no younger-brother he came-arrived-and safely he saw because thy father-by cow young thin-a-vang-i thao zet kha a thah-i,' a ti-i. Chu-le fat very that he killed, he said. Thereupon he became-angry-and house-to he rong-dak-i lem-i. Shi-kal-she-la a lut-duh-lo-vi, pa to-enter-wished-not-and, his father came-out-and he persuaded. Nevertheless his pa-i nhen-a, 'Thei-â, kum hi na nha ka tuan-i na thu shi-khâ ka el-nak-Listen, years these thy work I did-and thy word ever I disobeyingfather to, nhen-i lâm-âk-nak-ding me-te i pekel-shi-lo. hoi-le-i um-shi-lo-vi ka rejoicing-for thouwith kidgavest-even-not. friends mywas-not-and Chu-leh na fa-pa hi nâ-chi-zuar nhen-i na shum ei-thluk-tu-lu with thy goods ate-up-who-completely he came-Thereupon thy son this harlots fe-ve-leh a-ma-i rhang-a châ no thao zet kha na rak-thah-shak-vei-i,' a sake-for cow young fat very that thou to-kill-caused-also,' he his went-when a nhen-a, 'Ka fa-pa, ka-nhen-a na um-reng, Chu-leh 'My son, me-with thou art-always, said-and he answered. Thereupon him. to, a-shi-lo-mâ? Ka-ta i-piang i-ta a shi-hi. Lhim tak leh lâm tak-i um a Joy great and happiness great-in to-be it thine it Mine is. is-it-not? a-shi-lo-mâ? $_{
m hi}$ thia rong-nung a Hi nao a tha This thy younger-brother this he dead-was he came-alive he is-it-not? good-is kan mhu-leh-ta a shi-hi,' a ti-i. shi-hi, a is, he lost-was-and by-us seen-again he is,' he said.

LAI.

Several tribes call themselves Lai. This word is said to mean 'middle,' and the use of it as a tribal name is accounted for by the fact that the Lais are the central tribes in the Chin Hills. Their neighbours towards the north are the tribe which the Burmese call Tashons and the Lais Shunklas. To the south of the Lais we find the Zos. The Lais extend from the Burma frontier on the east to the Lushai country on the west. The Burmese call them Baungshè, and under this name they have generally been known to us. This term is, however, a mere nickname applied to all the Chins who wear their hair in a knot over the forehead. It is derived from the Burmese paung, to put on, and shè, in front. Dialects of the Lai language are spoken by the surrounding tribes, and nearly all of them also understand the standard form of speech. This is also the case with the Tashons, whose own language is said not to be radically different.

The clans which call themselves Lai are Hakas, Tlantlangs (or Klang-klangs), Yokwas, Thettas, Kapis, and many of the southern villages. The Hakas and the Tlantlangs are universally recognised as Lais, and these two tribes contend that the other three have no right to the name, they being the descendants of a wild goat. The Hakas were formerly constantly at war with the Tashōns, while the Tlantlangs made raids into Arrakan and Chittagong where they were known as Shendus. This latter name seems, however, to be applied to several different tribes. The vocabularies which have been published differ from each other and from standard Lai, but not more than is natural in the case of dialectic varieties. The Lushēis call the Lais, and other tribes who wear their hair in a knot upon the top of the head, Poi.

The Hakas maintain that they are the original inhabitants of the hills. Major Newland, who makes this statement, continues to say:—

'Their traditions trace them back to the time of the flood, when they sprung from the solitary couple who escaped the deluge of waters, by clinging to the top of the Rong Ktlang range, which is above Haka. Ever since then they have gone on increasing and multiplying and sending out off-shoots who have founded all the surrounding tribes and villages. Hence by right of descent the Hakas claim jurisdiction over all the rest.'

The Lais have no written literature, but a large number of national songs, called lha, are current among them. Major Newland has given some specimens in his grammar. He states that they are of two kinds, thi lha, funeral songs, and nang lha, which are sung on all other occasions. The village bard will celebrate all special events by a song composed for the occasion. Each song generally consists of one verse.

About 1,600 Lais, immigrants from the villages round Haka and Tlantlang, are settled in the Lungleh sub-division of the Lushai Hills where they are called Pois. The number of their houses is estimated at about 450, and they are said to speak the languages of the parent villages still. They extend from the eastern frontier of the Lushai Hills to the Koladyne river, to the north of Mal Selai as far as Dopura. Messrs. Carey and Tuck have estimated the number of the Hakas, Tlantlangs, and Yokwas as follows:—

Hakas	٠	•	•	•	•	•							14,250
Trantiangs	5	•		•								2	4 925
Yokwas	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	2,675
										To	TAL		21.850

To this total must be added the about 1,600 Lais in the Lungleh sub-division, and the Thettas, Kapis, and the other southern villages belonging to the Lais.

It is probable that different dialects are spoken among these tribes, but we are unable to make any definite statement. A full list of authorities has been given under the introductory remarks on Chins, above. Here I shall only mention the following books which give a fuller account of the Lais:—

MACNABB, D. J. C.,—Hand-book of the Haka or Baungshe Dialect of the Chin Language. Rangoon, 1891.

Reviewed by B. Houghton in the Indian Antiquary, Vol. xxi, 1892, pp. 123 and ff.

CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. History of the Lais on pp. 152 and ff.

NEWLAND, SURGEON-MAJOE A. G. E.,—A Practical Hand-book of the Language of the Lais as spoken by the Hakas and other allied Tribes of the Chin Hill: (commonly the Baungshè Dialect). Rangoon, 1897. Contains a short grammar; a copious English-Lai and Lai-English dictionary; illustrative sentences; and numerous notes on the people and their customs.

Scott, J. George, assisted by J. P. Hardiman,—Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. Part I, Vol. i, Rangoon, 1900. Note on the Lais on pp. 458 and f.; Haka and Shonshe vocabularies on pp. 682 and ff.

I am indebted to Major A. G. E. Newland, I.M.S., for the translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the dialect of Haka, printed below. The list of words has been compiled from Major Newland's Hand-book, which is also the foundation of the remarks on Lai grammar. The Hand-book itself must be consulted for further particulars. A list of words in the Shonshe dialect of Gangaw, which is closely connected with Lai, has been reprinted from the Upper Burma Gazetteer. It is contributed by Captain F. H. Elliott.

Pronunciation.—The system of transliteration used by Major Newland has been altered as follows, to bring it into line with that adopted for the survey. Instead of his \dot{a} (the a in 'age') I have given \bar{e} , instead of his u (the u in 'fun') I have given a; instead of his \ddot{u} (the u in 'duke') I have given $y\ddot{u}$; instead of his e (the ea in 'ease') I have given $\bar{\imath}$; instead of his aw (the aw in 'saw') I have given \hat{a} ; instead of his ow (the ow in 'how') I have given au. He seems to use the sign ú (the u in 'full') for the long as well as the short u. I have written \bar{u} throughout because I have no materials for distinguishing between the short and the long sounds. Major Newland seems to use er for the sound ö in the prefex pö which is used before numerals. Mr. Macnabb writes a, and I have written ö. It seems to be the case in Lai, as we know it to be in Southern Chin, that the pronunciation of vowels is not distinct. More especially, vowels which have lost their accentuation are apparently reduced to an indistinct sound, which I have denoted by a small a above the line; thus, ka-pa, my father. When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in a vowel, a euphonic y may be inserted between them; thus, lamb-pī-y-ā, way-great-in, far off. With regard to consonants Lai has both f and r, and also th (the th in 'thin'), which are all wanting in Southern Chin. Lai and Southern Chin have kl where Lushei and connected languages have tl. The consonant g seems to be foreign to Lai as it is to Lushei and connected languages. Aspirated letters are very common in Lai; thus, kh, ngh, th, dh, ph, lh, mh, nh, rh, and wh. R is said to have occasionally a soft sound. Major Newland transliterates this sound as rh. I have given rh. Final consonants are often very faintly pronounced, or modified; thus, $\underline{th}\bar{\imath}a$, property, for $\underline{th}\bar{\imath}l$; $s\bar{a}$, forehead, for sal, etc. This indistinct

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pronunciation has been indicated by a dot under the consonant. Thus, $sh\bar{a}l$, a servant. A final vowel is often doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel; \bar{e} -ak-ak, for \bar{e} -ak-ak, eating for. In the same way the initial l of a suffix or postposition is doubled after a word ending in a vowel; thus, ba, ever, but ballo, never; a, his, but amma, he.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are several prefixes and suffixes used in the formation of words. Many of them will be found under nouns and verbs below. Others are at the same time in use as independent words. Thus,—the suffix $n\bar{a}k$, which forms nouns from verbs; e.g., $th\bar{\imath}-n\bar{a}k$, poison, from $th\bar{\imath}$, to die; $it-n\bar{a}k$, bed, from it, to sleep. $N\bar{a}k$ is also used as a postposition with the meaning 'by way of,' 'for the purpose of'; e.g., $sap-p\bar{o}$ $nakk\bar{a}$, by the way of chaff, in jest. $N\bar{a}k-in$ is also the sign of comparison; thus, $nang-m\imath$ $n\bar{a}k-in$ amma a shan $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$, thee than (lit., thy direction from, compared with thee) he high more, he is higher than thou.

A very common prefix is a. It is used to form nouns from verbs and to form adjectives. Thus, $a-k\bar{u}$, cough $(k\bar{u})$, to cough); $a-l\bar{u}ng$, shining. This a is probably identical with the Burmese prefix a. In most cases, however, the prefix a is the possessive pronoun or pronominal prefix of the third person singular. This is clearly the case when verbs are derived from compound nouns by inserting a between the two components. Thus, $tin-h\bar{u}n$, liver-opening, anger; $k^a-tin\ a\ h\bar{u}n$, my liver it opens, I get angry.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *pö-kat*, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes distinguished by using different words; thus, pa, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: $p\bar{u}$, grandfather; $p\bar{\imath}$, grandmother. Pa and $n\bar{u}$ are the commonest words used to distinguish gender. Thus, pa $th\bar{e}$, male being young, boy; $n\bar{u}$ $th\bar{e}$, female being young, girl. In most cases pa and $n\bar{u}$ are used as suffixes. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ -pa, human being male, man; $m\bar{\imath}$ - $n\bar{u}$, woman: $v\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ -pa, a gander; $v\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{u}$, a goose. In the case of animals there are besides several other suffixes. Thus, sal, male, and $p\bar{\imath}$, female; e.g., $s\bar{u}k$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ sal, a male deer; $s\bar{u}k$ - $k\bar{\imath}$ $p\bar{\imath}$, a female deer: $lh\bar{\imath}$, male, and $p\bar{\imath}$, female; e.g., vok-tao, a pig; vok- $p\bar{\imath}$, a sow: $th\bar{u}m$, male, and $p\bar{\imath}$, female; e.g., vok-tao, a pig; vok- $p\bar{\imath}$, a sow: $th\bar{u}m$, male, and $th\bar{u}$, female; e.g., $th\bar{u}$ - $th\bar{u$

Number is not marked when it appears from the context; thus, $rang\ n\bar{\imath}$, two horses. In the specimen, however, we find $fa\text{-}pa\text{-}rw\bar{e}\ p\bar{o}\text{-}n\bar{\imath}$, sons two. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'great,' 'many,' 'multitude,' is added. Major Newland mentions the following:— $p\bar{\imath}$, great; $th\bar{\imath}um$, plenty; and $rw\bar{e}l$, which I identify with Lushēi rual, a herd, a flock. Thus, $Haka\ p\bar{\imath}$, Haka people; $m\bar{\imath}\ th\bar{\imath}um$, people many; $sh\bar{a}l\ rw\bar{e}$, slaves. We may add $s\hat{a}\text{-}l\bar{e}\text{-}r\bar{\imath}$, goods-and-more, goods; compare $thil\text{-}l\bar{e}\text{-}s\hat{a}$, chattels-and-goods, property.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is distinguished by adding the suffix $n\bar{e}$, denoting the agent; thus, a-pa- $n\bar{e}$ amma an $z\bar{o}$, his father him he saw. Sometimes this suffix is dropped. Thus, a-pa an chim, his father he said. The verb $ng\bar{e}$, to have got, to possess, seems to be used as an intransitive verb. The Genitive is expressed by simply putting the governed before the

governing noun; thus, ko lhāt pī kwa, country far very-of village, a village in a very distant country; vok rāl, pigs' food. The Vocative is marked by the addition of some interjection; thus, mō k*-nū, O my mother. In the specimen the imperative $\underline{th}\bar{e}$ -o, hear, is added to the noun, thus, k*-pa $\underline{th}\bar{e}$ o, my father hear, O my father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are: $-\bar{a}$, in, before, to; $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{a}$, into; $h\bar{e}$, in, with, by means of; in, in, into, with, at, from; lak, till; leng- \bar{a} , out of; $nh\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} , on the back of, after; sa, for; $sh\bar{v}na$, to, with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. The position before the noun seems to be regular in the superlative degree. The suffix of comparison is $n\bar{a}k$ -in; the comparative degree is marked by adding $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$; and the superlative by adding $by\bar{i}k$ or $ch\bar{i}n$, very, to the positive. Thus, nang-ma $n\bar{a}k$ -in amma a-shan- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$, thee than he tall-more, he is taller than thou; nyang- $by\bar{i}k$, youngest; a-ta $ch\bar{i}n$ pwen, the very best cloth. Instead of $n\bar{a}k$ -in we also find $ch\bar{u}$ -in and $l\bar{e}$; thus, nang-ma $ch\bar{u}$ -in a-shan- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$, he is taller than thou; $sh\bar{i}ar$ sa $l\bar{e}$ vok sa a-thao- $d\bar{e}y\bar{u}$, pork is fatter than beef.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the word they qualify. They seem to be generally preceded by the generic prefix $p\ddot{o}$; thus, $m\ddot{\imath}$ -pa $p\ddot{o}$ -kat, one man. Other generic prefixes are $p\bar{u}m$, which is used for round things, and $p\ddot{o}rr$, used for loads or bundles. Thus, $mai\ p\ddot{u}m$ -kat, one pumpkin; $thing\ p\ddot{o}rr$ -kat, one load of wood. Sometimes the noun itself, or a part of it, is repeated as a generic prefix. Thus, $rang\ rang$ -kat, one horse; $sh\ddot{a}l\ sh\ddot{a}$ -kat, one slave $(sh\ddot{a}l$ - $pa\ p\ddot{o}$ -kat in the specimen); $z\acute{a}$ - $p\ddot{\imath}\ z\acute{a}$ -kat, one cow; $s\ddot{\imath}$ - $z\acute{a}\ z\acute{a}$ -kat, one cat. There are no real ordinals. Ma-sa-ka, ma-sa- $k\ddot{u}n$, and a- $th\ddot{e}r$ - $th\ddot{e}r$, mean 'the first,' and a-tai and a-tai the second.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

 $k\bar{e}$ -ma, $k\bar{e}$, I.nang-ma, nang, thou. $k\bar{e}$ -ma, kan, $k\bar{a}$,nang-ma, nang, nang, nang, nang, nang, nang, nang, nang, thy. $k\bar{e}$ -ma- \bar{i} , $k\bar{e}$ -manang-ma- \bar{i} , nang-ma sa, sa, mine.

amma-ī, amma sa, his, hers, its.

amma, an, a, his, her, its.

amma, he, she, it.

Plural,-

kan-nī, we. nan-nī, you. an-nī, they.

The short forms are also used as oblique cases; thus, $kan\ p\bar{e}k$ -ko, give me; n^*-k^* -thin-fon-lo, thou-me-gavest-also-not. The corresponding forms in the plural are kan, our; nan, your; and an, their. Compare Pronominal prefixes with verbs, below. The ordinary case suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus, amma- $n\bar{e}$ $an\ th\bar{a}$, he said; nang- $ma\ sh\bar{i}na$, with thee.

The following are the Demonstrative pronouns: $-h\bar{\imath}$, this; $h\bar{\imath}$ - $hc\bar{\imath}$, these: $kh\bar{\imath}$, that; $kh\bar{\imath}$ -hoi, those; $ch\bar{\imath}$, that. Thus, $h\bar{\imath}$ pa $h\bar{\imath}$, this man; $h\bar{\imath}$ -hoi $h\bar{\imath}$ $z\bar{e}$ -da $sh\bar{\imath}$, what are these? $k\bar{\imath}$ inn $k\bar{\imath}$, that house. $Ch\bar{\imath}$ is used as an emphasising particle and as a correlative. Thus, a-pa $ch\bar{\imath}$ $sh\bar{\imath}$ - $tw\bar{e}$ $h\bar{e}$ an chim, but his father the-servants to he said; $k\bar{e}$ $ch\bar{\imath}$, I myself; nang-ma $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $tw\bar{e}$ $h\bar{e}$ an chim, thee from he good-looking-more, he looks better than thou; $n\bar{\imath}$ $z\bar{\imath}$ n^* - $p\bar{e}$ k $ch\bar{\imath}$ sa, yesterday thou gavest, that letter; the letter which thou gavest me yesterday. A- $ch\bar{\imath}$ n, that-in, is used as a conjunction with the meaning 'if.' Thus, n^* - $d\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{\imath}$ a $ch\bar{\imath}$ n $h\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$ k, thou wishest that-being take, take it if thou wishest.

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There are no Relative pronouns. Relative participles and the noun of agency are used instead, and the demonstrative pronoun $ch\bar{u}$ may be used as a kind of correlative. Thus, $a-\underline{th}\bar{u}t$ $m\bar{\imath}$, the man who was murdered; $a-z\bar{u}k$ $m\bar{\imath}$, purchased things; $a-m\bar{u}-\underline{th}\bar{u}$, the man who saw, a witness; $k\bar{e}-ma$ $k^a-ng\bar{e}$ $\underline{th}il-l\bar{e}-s\bar{a}$, I having property, the property which I have; $n\bar{\imath}$ $z\bar{u}n$ $n^a-k^a-p\bar{e}k-n\bar{u}k$ $s\bar{\imath}$ $k^a-ding-sang$, yesterday thee-by-me-to-given medicine I drank, I drank the medicine thou gavest me yesterday; k^a-fa $a-\underline{th}\bar{\imath}-rwa$ $k^a-\underline{th}\bar{\imath}$ $ch\bar{u}$ $a-n\bar{u}ng-t\bar{u}n$, my son he-is-dead I-said that he-revived-again, my son whom I thought dead he is alive again.

Interrogative Pronouns.—A-ho-da, who? koi-da, which? $z\bar{e}$ -da, what? Thus, a-ho-da shī, who is that? $h\bar{i}$ -byē $z\bar{e}$ -da shī, this-matter what is? What is the matter? koi kwa mī da, of which village (are you) inhabitants?

Indefinite pronouns.—A- $z\bar{e}$, a-ho, any; a-ho- $m\bar{i}$, anybody; $z\bar{e}$ - $z\bar{o}ng$, $z\bar{e}$ -man, anything, something; a-tim, some, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—kan, $k\bar{a}$, or k^a , I; kan, we: nan, $n\bar{a}$ or n^a , thou; nan, you: an or a, he, she, it; an, they. The shorter forms k^a , n^a , and a, are generally used in common conversation. When more than one pronoun is prefixed to the verb, the pronoun of the first person always immediately precedes the verb, those of the second and third persons being prefixed to it. Thus, $z\bar{e}$ -tik-ka n^a - k^a - $shv\bar{e}$ -bal-lo, any-time thee-I-offended-never; $r\bar{u}l$ - $n\bar{e}$ a- k^a - $ch\bar{u}k$, a snake he bit me. In the last instance the suffix $n\bar{e}$ marks the subject. But in many cases the context alone shows which pronoun represents the subject, and which the object, the fuller forms of the personal pronouns being generally omitted before the short ones. Thus, n^a - k^a -chim may mean 'I said to you,' and 'you said to me.' The pronominal prefixes denoting the subject are dropped before an imperative, and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun, but also occasionally elsewhere.

The root alone without any suffix is freely used to denote present and past time; thus, $k\bar{e}$ -ma k^a -ding, I drink; a-ng \bar{e} , he had. A suffix ai or \bar{e} is sometimes added, apparently without changing the meaning; thus, k^a - $t\bar{\imath}$ -ai, I am afraid; a- $p\bar{e}m$ -ai, he migrated; k^a - $tw\bar{\imath}$ n-len-ko- \bar{e} , I did always.

A Present definite seems to be formed by adding the suffix leo; thus, k^* -ding-leo, I am drinking; an boi-leo- \bar{e} , he is drinking. The same form is also used as an Imperfect; thus, k^* -ding-leo- \bar{e} , I was drinking.

The suffix of the **Past time** is sang, which corresponds to Tibetan song; thus, k^2 ding-sang, I drank. The same suffix is usually added to adjectives when they perform the function of a verb; thus, a-z \bar{a} -sang, it is enough. Compare also Imperative, below. In one place we find ma-sa, formerly, prefixed to a tense ending in sang in order to emphasise that the action of the verb belongs to the past; thus, ma-sa an $th\bar{c}$ -sang- \bar{c} , formerly he died, he was dead. The \bar{c} in $th\bar{c}$ -sang- \bar{c} does not seem to add anything to the meaning. Compare the remarks above. Major Newland mentions several particles which are added to the verb in the past tense in order to emphasise. Some of them will be mentioned with compound verbs below, and none of them seems to be a real suffix of the past tense.

The suffix of the **Future** is *lai*; thus, k^a -kal-lai, I will go; a-shī-ding-lai-lo, it-to-be-proper-in-future-not, it will not be proper any more. The suffix nga is often combined with lai; thus, tai- $tw\bar{c}n$ k^a -ka-nga-lai, to-morrow I will go; a- $l\bar{u}t$ -nga-lai-lo, he would not

enter. This nga seems, however, only to emphasise and is also used to express completion of action; thus, $an-p\bar{e}k-nga$, he has given.

The root alone, without any suffix, may be used as an Imperative. Thus, $rh\bar{o}l$ -thar, cause him to put on. A prefix v^a is apparently used to form imperatives; thus v^a -ka, go. Major Newland mentions the following suffixes of the imperative:—o, ko, lo, $k\bar{u}n$, pyak, $t\bar{h}wa$, and, as polite forms, $h\bar{e}in$, ngath, and $sh\bar{e}$ (ko- $sh\bar{e}$, $r\bar{i}$ - $sh\bar{e}$). Thus, $th\bar{e}$ -o, hear; $p\bar{e}k$ -ko, give; ding-lo, drink; $p\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{u}n$, give; $h\bar{a}$ -pyak, ask him; \bar{e} - $t\bar{h}wa$, cause him to put on; $h\bar{e}$ - $sh\bar{e}in$, please make me also (your servant); ding-ngath, please drink; $\bar{u}m$ -ko- $sh\bar{e}$, please wait, etc. The form ending in ko- $sh\bar{e}$ is also used as an imperative of the third person; thus ka-ko- $sh\bar{e}$, let-him-go. The suffix sang is also used in the imperative, sometimes together with a prefix kan; thus, $m\bar{e}$ kan-thik-sang, make the fire. The first person plural seems to be formed by prefixing in and suffixing $l\bar{u}n$; thus, kan in-e- $l\bar{u}n$, let us eat. This form is probably a future. Most of, or perhaps all, the suffixes mentioned above are certainly independent words, and the forms given as imperatives are really compound verbs, no suffix being added. The suffix thwa is, for instance, probably identical with the verb thwa, to do. But in other cases the real meaning of the suffix is not apparent.

The suffix of the Negative imperative is that; thus, ding-nga-tha, do not drink.

Postpositions are freely added to verbal nouns, and also to other verbal forms. Thus, $k\bar{e}$ -ma $h\bar{e}$ n^{o} - $k\bar{a}l$ -la tanka kan $p\bar{e}k$ -lai, me with your-going-in money I give will, if you go with me I will reward you; a-dam-in, his-safe-being-in, safely; a-sa a- $d\bar{a}$ -lak a- $lh\bar{o}$ - $d\bar{a}$ -ai-in, his goods the-end-till his-waste-finishing-in, when he had wasted his property to the last; a- $l\bar{u}ng$ a- $f\bar{e}im$ - $t\bar{a}n$ -in, his mind its-wise-again-becoming-in, when his mind became sound again; a-kal-in $h\bar{u}n$ -chim, his-going-in come-and-tell, come and tell me when he goes; n^{o} -kal-lai-in, your-going-future-in, when you will go. All these forms may also be considered as participles.

An Adverbial participle is formed by adding ling-mang. Ling perhaps corresponds to the suffix lang in Lushēi and connected languages, and mang has also the meaning 'used to,' inclined to'; compare Lushēi mang, very, much. It seems to be used to intensify the meaning. Thus, k*-kal-ling-mang k*-mū, I going along found it; k*-ril-ling-mang k*-hūn, constantly falling I came down; lamb-pī-y-ā a-ra-ling-mang chū a-pa-nē amma an zō, distance-great-at he-coming his father he saw him, when he was still far off, his father saw him. In other places this form has the force of a Conjunctive participle; thus, an-klīk-ling-mang a-fa-hōng a-kūp, he running his-son's-neck he-embraced.

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The root alone is also used as a conjunctive participle; thus, \underline{tha} an $p\bar{e}k$ -ko, dividing me give; tai- \underline{thorr} \bar{e} k- $h\bar{u}n$ -lai, breakfast eaten-having I-come-will, I will eat my breakfast and come; k- \underline{thau} -ko k-pa $sh\bar{u}n$ k-kal-lai, I arising my-father to I-go-will. The suffix pa is used in a similar way; thus, k- $h\bar{u}n$ -pa k- $m\bar{u}$, having come up I saw.

The root alone, or with the suffixes $m\bar{i}$, and in past time $n\bar{a}k$, is used as a Relative participle. See Relative pronouns, above.

Noun of agency.—The following suffixes occur:—pa, $th\bar{u}$, and tiam; thus, rang- $ch\bar{t}th$ -pa, horse-riding-man, a rider; ra- $k\bar{a}p$ - $th\bar{u}$, he who shoots the enemy, a soldier; in-shak-tiam, house-to-make-able, a builder, a carpenter. The suffix pa is identical with the Tibetan article pa.

There is no **Passive voice**. Instead of 'I was struck by him,' we must say 'he struck me,' amma-nē a-k^a-vēl; thus, nang-ma-nē k^a-chim, by-you my-saying took place, I was told by you; amma-nē a-tin a-hūn-len-ko, by-him his liver it opened, he opened his liver, got angry.

Compound verbs are freely formed. In many cases compound nouns are changed into verbs by inserting an a between the two components. Thus, lung-ngan, vanity, pride: ke-lung-a-ngan, I am haughty, lit. my mind it becomes big. These are no true compound verbs. Such are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words modifying the sense. The prefix he seems to mean motion towards. It is often used with the imperative; thus, hē-chim, go and tell; hē-lāk, take it. The prefix in is often used with the future; thus, kan in-pēk-lai, I will give you; kan in-ē-lān, let us eat. But it also occurs with other tenses; thus, an in-lam-ko, they made merry; a-lūng in-rwā, he said to himself. It seems to have a reflexive force; compare Lushei in. Rak seems to mean motion towards; thus, rak-pū, to bring. It is often prefixed to the imperative. Thus, rak-kallo, go; rak-chim-lo, tell (him); etc. Vo, and va seem to be prefixed in order to add emphasis to the verb; thus, rál nº-vº-lam-thāk-má, have you eaten up your food: vo-ka, go; a-va-ding-sang, he has drunk it up. Vūn or vūng is also said to express emphasis. As a verb vūng means 'to go,' 'to depart.' And as a prefix it therefore perhaps means motion. Thus, ke-vūn-chim-dwok-lai, I will go and tell him quickly; $v\bar{u}n$ - $p\bar{e}$, give; $v\bar{u}ng$ - $p\bar{u}$, go and bring.

A great number of words are added to verbs in order to form compounds with a modified meaning. $D\bar{e}$ -mang, which is sometimes replaced by $d\bar{e}ng$, has the meaning 'to be about'; thus, k^* - $t\bar{k}$ - $d\bar{e}$ -mang-ai, I am about to die; an- $p\bar{a}k$ - $d\bar{e}ng$, he was about to reach, he drew near (the house). $D\bar{i}$ means 'to finish,' 'to complete'; thus, a- $t\bar{k}$ - $t\bar{k}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{i}$ a- $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{i}$ a- $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{i}$ a- $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{$

a-ta-ko-da-ko, why, it is good. $P\bar{e}k$, to give, and pyak are sometimes added, apparently only in order to add emphasis. $P\bar{i}$, together, implies collective action. $R\bar{i}$ means 'more,' 'yet.' Rwa, to believe, is added to show that the action of the verb only takes place in the imagination of the speaker; thus, $a-th\bar{i}-rwa$ $k^a-th\bar{i}$, 'he is dead' I said; (but he was not dead). $T\bar{a}n$ means 'again'; thus, $a-n\bar{u}ng-t\bar{u}n$, he is alive again. Thar is the causative suffix; thus, a-ka-thar, he caused to go, he sent. Thak or $th\bar{a}k$, to abandon; to leave behind, is used as a suffix of past time; thus, $by\bar{e}$ $n^a-chim-th\bar{a}k-m\bar{a}$, have you spoken about it? Thon means 'previously'; $v\bar{e}$, also, etc.

The **Negative particle** is lo; thus, a-pal-lo, he gave not. The negative particle lha, which is used with the imperative (see above), also occurs with other tenses; thus, k_a -nga- $p\bar{e}k$ -lha, I do not recognise this.

The Interrogative particles are $m\tilde{a}$ or ma, $ch\bar{\imath}$, a, da-ra, and ma-ka. Thus, n^* - $kl\bar{u}ng$ - $m\hat{a}$, have you arrived? n^* - $d\bar{u}$ -nga- $ch\bar{\imath}$, do you want it? $z\bar{u}ng$ -za-ma n^* - $l\bar{u}$ a-fak, is your head $(l\bar{u})$ always $(z\bar{u}ng$ -za) paining? etc.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs; thus, a-ta-sang, it is good; nai-tha, don't approach. Verbs are sometimes formed from nouns by adding th. Thus, fa, child; fath, to breed: var, husband; vath, to marry a husband. Such words are in reality a kind of causatives. The final th is derived from a t; compare thi, to die; that, to kill.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LAI.

(HAKA, CHIN HILLS.)

E 2

(Major A. G. E. Newland, I.M.S., 1899.)

An acute accent shows the words accented in a sentence.

Mī-pa pö-kat fa-pa-rwē pö-nī a-ngē. A-nyang-byik fa (or a-lai-lak Man sons twohe-had. The-youngest son (or the-second son) a-pa shī-na an-thī'. 'Ka-pa, rō-sō-sâ kē-ma sakan he-said, 'My-father, the-goods-of my share having-divided me his-father topēk'-ko.' A-thil-lē-sâ amma-hē an-port'. Nī klom-pa nhū-ā a-nyang-byīk fa give.' His-property him-to he-divided. Days a-few after the-youngest son a-sâ-lē-rī a-zā-thē-in a-pūm'-ko ko-lhāt-pī kwil a-klong' (or ko-lhāt-pī he-gathered country-far-very journey he-took (or country-far-very-of his-goods allkwa dang a-pēm'-ai). Kī-kin a thil-le-ri a-ta-lo-kwa-shak-in (or village different he-migrated). There his substance bad-living-in (or bye-rīā-lo-in) a-lhō'-dī-ai. så a-dī-lak a-lhō'-di-ai-in, A kī kwa-in mang-tām riotous-living-in) he-wasted. His goods all he-wasted-when, that village-in a-famine fāk-pī a-klūng'. A-chī'-fāk-a-chan'-fāk-in a-ūm'-ko. Ki-kwa mī-pa-hē anmighty arose. Want-and-distress-in he-was. Of-that-village a-citizen-to hethit'. A-mī-pa-nē a-vok-rwē râl-pek'-âk-ka amma a lo-ā a-ka'-thar. joined. That-citizen-by swine to-feed him his fields-to he-caused-him-to-go. A-râl-tām-nāk-in amma fon vok râl pâ-kim-lak ē′ a-du, t<u>h</u>ī-t<u>h</u>ā-chūn His-hungry-state-in he too pig's food belly-full-till to-eat he-was-fain, a-ho-mī amma-hē a-tzē' a-pal'-lo (or an-thin'lo). A lung a-fēim-tān-in anyone him-to anything gave-not (gave-not).His mind recovered-again-when a-lūng' in-rwa, "Kapa mit-ti-rwē (or shāļ-rwē) râl-ē'-âk tham to-himself he-said, 'My-father's servants (or slaves) foodabundant have, tham-thūk-thā-chūn amma ē-kim-nhū-ā mī-dang thin'-âk a-ūm'-fon ; so-much-that they eating-their-fill-after others to-give there-remains-also; kē-ma râl-lo-in ka-thī'-dē-mang-ai. Ka-thau'-ko, ka-pa shī-na ka-kal'-lai, ammahunger-in I-to-die-about-am. I-having-arisen, my-father to I-go-will, hē ka-thī'-lai, "kapa-thē-o, vān kozin lē nangma hē ka-shwel'-ai: to I-say-will, " O-father, heavenly spirit and you against I-have-sinned; hi-nhū na-fa ka-shī-ai chim'-âk a-shī-ding-lai-lo. Na-man-pal any-more your-son I-am to-say it-will-be-proper-not. Your-hired rhien-twin-pa bang kē-ma bēl hē-shīr'-vē-hēin."" Nhū-ā an thau' an-na work-doer like me alsomake-also-please." Then he arose his-father shī-na an-rath'. Lamb-pī-yā a-ra'-ling-mang chū a-pa-nē amma tocame. Way-great-off he-coming thenhis-father-by him

an-klik'-ling-mang a-fa hōng a-kup' an-in-nam'-ko. an-zān'-fāk-in an-zō', his-son's neck he-embraced he-kissed-him. he-running sau, compassion-from thâ', 'Kapa-thē-o, vān kozīn lē nangma A-fa'-nē amma hē you said. O-father, heavenly spiritand him The-son-by ka-shwēl'-ai. Hī-nhū nª-fa ka-shī-ai chim'-ak a-shī-ding'-lai-lo.' hē I-am it-will-be-proper-not.' against I-have-sinned. Hereafter to-say your-son pwen vūng'-pū, 'a-ta-chīn-chīn chū shāl-rwē hē an-chim', · the-best robe bring-forth, The-father but . servants to he-said, hē kē-dan hē kūt-rhōl rhōl'-thar, amma hē ē'-thar-thwa; a-kūt a-kē his-feet on shoes his-hand on a-ring put. put; kan-in-ē'-lān, kan-in-lâm'-lān, kan-in-boi'-lan; hē-dīn'-thar: kan-nī let-us-eat, let-us-be-merry, let-us-feast; put; 100 a-nūng'-tān; a-klao-rwa, ka-thi', ka-thī', $ch\bar{u}$ chū a-thī'-rwa, ka-fa he-dead-is, I-said, heis-alive-again; he-lost-is, I-said, hemy-son An-nī an-in-lâm'-ko an-boi'-ko. k'-mū'-tān.' They they-made-merry they-feasted. I-have-found-again.'

lo-ā a-ūm'-ko. $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{n}$ in-nā an-ra an-pākūpa-fa Athū field-in he-was. Hehouse-to Now the-elder-son he-came he-to-reachlē pūran lē shūm-shal thūm' lē lām-ko chū thing-thang dēng about-was then of-musical-instruments and drums and symbols playing and dancing na-in an thē'. Shāl-pa pö-kat an-hau' A' a bye-an-hal'. heard. Servant he-called sound his ears-in he oneword-he-asked. 'Hi-bve zē-da shī'? a-rwāk zē-da shī? Amma-nē an-thâ', 'Nangma " These-things whatare? its-meaning what is ?" Him-by said, a-klūng'-ai; a-dam'-in a-zāng-a-ta'-in klūng nao a chī-thē-chun brother he-is-come : safe his-health-it-good-being he arrivedtherefore nª-pa an-lâm'-ko an-boi'-leo-ē.' Amma-nē a-tin-a-hūn'-len-ko, thy-father is-glad he-feasting-is.' Him-by his-liver-he-opened, in-chūn-nā a-lūt'-nga-lai-lo-da-ko'. a-pa in-leng-ā an-shuak' he-enter-would-not-as. house-inside his-father the-house-outside he-came amma-hē an-kâ'-len-ko. Amma a-pa-hē an-tha', 'kēma nangma shī-na him-with he-entreated. He his-father-to said. ٠I y04 with kum-za'-pī-yā na-rhien ka-twin'-len-ko-ë' n-zē'-byē-in zē-tik'-ka years-many-in your-work I-have-been-doing thy-any-commandment-in any-time-at na-ka-shwel'-ballo-e; chī-thē-chūn' nang kēma shī-na mēhē-fa thee-I-offended-never; yet thou me to goat-young the-the po-kat bel zē-tik'-ka na-ka-thin'-fon-lo, kan koi-pa-rwe shī-na smalloneeven any-time-at thou-me-gavest-also-not, my friends lâm'-âk-ka. Hī-hī nang-ma fa chū nª-sâ chu-lban-nū-rwe shī-na eating-for feasting-for. This thy son that thy-goods harlots with an-lhō-ai an-klung kat-thē-in amma sa-a' nan-boi'-ko-ā.' he-squandered he-returned as-soon-as him for thou-feast-gavest.'

A-pa-nē amma hē an-thī', 'K*-fa-pa nang-ma zung'-za kēma shī-na His-father-by himto he-said, ' My-son thou withever me na-ūm'-ko; kēma kangē thil-lē-sâ a-zā'-thē-in nang thil-lē-sâ a-shī'-fon; thou-art; I-have things allthy things they-are-also; kan-in-lâm-nga kan-in-boi'-nga a-ta'-ko-da-ko' (or a-shī-ding'-ai), we-glad-be-shall we-feast-shall it-meet-is (or it-was-right), hī-hī nang-ma nao, an-thī'-sang-ē', ma-sa a-thū a-nūng-tān; this thy brother, formerly he-died, now he-is-alive-again; an-klao'-sang-ē', an-kīr'-tān.' he-lost-was, he-returned-again.'

LAKHER DIALECT.

The Lakher dialect is spoken by about 1,000 individuals, living in 300 houses to the south of the Blue Mountains in the Lungleh sub-division of the South Lushai Hills. Their customs are distinct, and it is not thought probable that their language will die out. According to Mr. Drake-Brockman they call themselves Tlongsai. They are an off-shoot of the Tlantlang tribe of Lais. This tribe occupies the Chin Hills to the south and west of the Tashons. Their number in the Chin Hills was estimated at about 5,000 by Messrs. Carey and Tuck. Some inhabitants of the Tlantlang villages on the frontier between the Lushai and the Chin Hills are Lusheis. There has been a good deal of intermarriage, and there are many half-breeds. These all claim to be Lais. The Lakhers are said to be called Zao by the Chins. Zao is probably the same as Zo or Yo, a name which is used to denote most of the tribes in the Hills.

The Tlantlangs were first known on the Arakan and Chittagong Frontiers where they were called Shendus. It is not, however, certain whether all the tribes called so were Tlantlangs. Captain Lewin calls them Shendoos or Lakheyr Poy. His vocabulary seems to be taken from a dialect which in all essentials is identical with that which Major Hughes has used for his list of words in Shandoo. The materials are, however, insufficient for a definite decision. The negative particle seems to be wai which may be compared with the Shö a. The suffix of the Imperative seems to be tai or te, which seems to correspond to Siyin teō and perhaps to Lai thwa. The numerals mainly correspond to those usual in Lai, but also sometimes to the forms occurring in Shö and Khami. It is probable, though it cannot as yet be proved, that the two vocabularies represent one or more dialects intermediate between Lai and Shö. This would agree with the position assigned to the tribe, north-east and east of the Blue Mountains, i.e., the country occupied by the Tlantlangs and Hakas. We are unable to state whether the language spoken by the Lakhers in the Lushai Hills is the same, though we might infer that it is so from the fact that Captain Lewin states that the Shendus are also called Lakheyr. The name Heu-mā given by Captain Tickell is perhaps the same as Zao, see above. Elles states that the Lakher or Longshing clan came originally from Tlantlang.

The authorities dealing with these tribes are given below. But it must be remembered that it is uncertain whether they have anything to do with the Lakhers of the Lushai Hills.

- Tickell, Capt. S. R.,—Notes on the Heu-má or "Shendoos," a tribe inhabiting the Hills North of Arracan.

 Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. xxi, 1853, pp. 207 and ff.
- Lewin, Capt. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with Comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Account of the Shendoos on pp. 113, and ff. Shendoo vocabulary on pp. 147 and ff.
- Spearman, H. R.,—The British Burma Gazetteer. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1880. Note on the Shandoos on pp. 185 and f.
- Hughes, Major W. Gwynne,—The Hill Tracts of Arakan. Rangoon, 1881. Notes on the Shandoos or Poois on pp. 35 and 42 ff.; Shandoo vocabulary, Appendix pp. iii, and ff.
- Chambers, Capt. O. A.,—Handbook of the Lushai Country . . compiled in the Intelligence Branch, 1889.

 Contains a Shendu vocabulary.
- ELLES, COLONEL E. R., —Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893. Note on the name Shendu on p. 12; on the Lakher or Longshing clan on p. 14.
- CAREY, BERTRAM S., and H. N. Tuck,—The Chin Hills: A History of the People, our Dealings with them, their Customs and Manners, and a Gazetteer of their Country. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1896. Account of the Klangklangs on pp. 160 and f.

LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

The Lushai Hills have been the scene of various migrations, new tribes at different times pushing the former inhabitants westwards and northwards. The Lushēis, who are now the prevailing race throughout the hills, seem, according to Mr. Davis, to have begun to move forward from the south-east about the year 1810. Between 1840 and 1850 they obtained final and complete possession of the North Lushai Hills, having pressed the former possessors, the Thādos, before them into Cachar. In 1849 they made a raid on a Thādo village in Cachar, and for the first time came in contact with us. After several raids on our territory and occasional expeditions against them on our part, we, in the beginning of 1890, took continued possession of the North Lushai Hills, and in May 1890 a political officer was appointed to control our relations with the Lushēis, with his head quarters at Aijal. The South Lushai Hills were constituted as a British district on and from the 1st April 1891.

Regarding the various tribes who speak some form or other of Lushei, I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for the following information:—

Lushai is our way of spelling the word; the proper way to spell the word, so as to represent the actual sound, as spoken by the people, is Lushai. The term includes a number of families, among which are the following: Sailo, Thanglua, Rivung, Jadeng, Rokum, Pallian, Pachua, Haonar, Chenkual, Choahang, Changte, Chongte, Hualgno, Hualhang [Howlong]. (The Hualgno are the tribe spoken of by the Chin Hills officers as Whenoh.) There are probably other families that claim to be true Lushais. The term Dulien is also applied to these families and the language spoken by all these families is known as Lushai or Dulien. These Lushais have conquered and broken up all other communities which formerly had separate villages in the hills. So completely has this been done that when we occupied the hills, nearly every village was ruled by a chief of one of the following families, viz., Sailo, Thanglua, Pallian. Of these, the Sailo were far the most numerous; in fact to-day, the number of houses in villages not ruled by Sailos is insignificant. The Lushais having conquered the other clans and absorbed them to a great extent, it is natural that the Lushai language has come to be the language of by far the greater number of people in the hills west of the Tyao-Koladyne line.

'The people who inhabit this area and who are not Lushēis may be divided into (a) tribes conquered and absorbed by the Lushēis, (b) immigrants from the Chin Hills, who have come across the Tyao-Koladyne line and seized land by force of arms, (c) the Fanai.

'Among (a) are Rāltē, Mhār, Paitē, Vanchia, Kolhring, Ngentē, Powtu, and innumerable others. Most of these, if they ever had a separate language, have lost it now and speak only Lushēi. The Mhār and the Rāltē are still numerous and keep together and thus their dialects have survived. All these people are indistinguishable from Lushēis in their appearance and only differ in a few of their customs and methods of sacrificing.

'(b) Among these are the Jahow, more properly Zahao, in the northern hills and the Lakhers and other immigrants from round Haka in the southern hills. These people speak their own languages, and if their progress had not been arrested by us they would have made an effort to drive out the Lushēis. Their customs and languages differ from those of the Lushēis in many particulars.

'(c) The Fanai are a very small family, the first Fanai to be considered a chief, was the grandfather of the present Fanai chiefs, of whom there are only seven, who rule some 800 houses. They speak Lushēi.

'It must be clearly understood that there are no tribes as we understand the term. In former official correspondence the Syloo tribe and the Thanglua tribe are spoken of, and it was thought that all people living in these communities were Syloos (Sailos) or Thangluas, whereas Sailo, Thanglua, etc., are nearly only the names of individual families to which the chiefs belonged, the villages ruled by these chiefs being inhabited by representatives of many different families. I have just succeeded in tracing out the pedigree of the Sailo who are also called Thangur, through 13 generations back to Thangurra, the founder of the family and grandfather of Sailoa, whence the family took their name.'

To this may be added the following statement taken from Mr. Davis' Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills:—

'The term Lushei, though known to the people living in the Lushai Hills, is not, however, used in the general sense in which we are accustomed to employ it, and is really used as a name for only one of the many

clans or septs who speak what is known among the people themselves as the 'Dulien Tong' or 'Dulien language.' . . . The general term that includes all inhabitants of the North Lushai Hills, except Pois, is 'Mezo' or 'Mizāu,' of which the principal sub-divisions are as follows:—

(1) Dulien, or Lushēi.

(3) Rāltē.

(2) Mhār.

(4) Paitē.

'These again are sub-divided into many castes or clans; thus, of the Dulien or Lushēi the principal clans are,—

(1) Pällien.

(3) Cheng khuāl.

(2) Sāilō or Thāngur.

(4) Pachu-āu.

'The first three of these clans are royal castes. The Pāllien is now nearly extinct, and is represented in the North Lushai Hills by two chiefs only. . . . There is one chief of the Chengkhuāl clan, and all the rest of the chiefs of villages in the North Lushai Hills are of the Sāilō family.'

The Lushëis are described as 'short, sturdy, thick-set men of Mongolian type of face and build.' 'The men average in height from 5 feet to 5 feet 8 inches, and the women from 4 feet 8 inches to 5 feet 4 inches. Both sexes vary greatly in colour, from light yellow to very dark brown. Good looks are more frequent amongst the men than amongst the women.' Colonel Elles remarks:—

'Many of them wear a dull and morose air, which is partly due to perpetual intoxication, though no doubt, principally to the gloomy forests and heavy rainfall of the country they inhabit. In nature they are no doubt savage and morose, and they have not as yet acquired any of the virtues of civilization. Even patriotism takes simply the form of a mule-kicking when it considers its load too heavy, and we have no instance of self-sacrifice in defence of home or country, and very little pressure has again and again induced them to desert their chiefs. They will overpower a small force if they get the opportunity, and soon after meet an avenging force with every sign of friendliness and welcome. . . . Men, women, and children smoke tobacco almost incessantly. . . . They manufacture a kind of beer from rice and other grain called variously kang, lu or zu, and drink great quantities of it.'

A small class of men from their boyhood adopt the clothes and habits of women. They are called 'Toi,' and are treated as women, and do women's work. Their principal occupation used to be dancing, for which purpose they used to travel from village to village.

The Lushëis live in villages, usually placed on the tops of hills and ridges, and varying in size from 600 to 50 houses. The government of the village is in the hands of the chief or $l\bar{a}l$. His house is open as an asylum, but everybody who takes refuge here becomes the chief's slave. The villages are moved to a fresh site about once in every five years. This is a consequence of their system of cultivation, which is the *jhum* system common to all hill tribes.

'The religion of the Lushëis,' says Mr. Davis, 'is the same as that of the other animistic tribes on this frontier, i.e., though they believe that a good spirit exists, their sacrifices are always made to the particular bad spirit to whose influence any particular misfortune is supposed to be due.'

Several languages are spoken in the Lushai Hills, thus, besides various Indo-Aryan vernaculars spoken by scattered individuals, the following languages belonging to the Kuki-Chin group: Zahao, Lakher, Mhār, Paitē, Lai and Rāltē. But the principal language throughout the hills is Lushēi or Dulien, which is also commonly understood by the Zahaos and the Rāltēs. This language is also spoken in the south-west corner of the Cachar plains. The figures reported for Lushēi are as follows:—

Dusdat Hills (Dungten)	_	22,300
Lushai Hills (Lungleh)		18,000
Cachar Plains . Lushai Hills .		239

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The Deputy Commissioner of the Lushai Hills states:-

'This dialect of the Kuki-Lushai Group is the lingua franca of all the tribes in the North Lushai Hills District, as I believe it is of all the tribes of the South Lushai Hills, being understood by all. It is the language of the Sailau (Syloo) clan which has within the past 60 years attained a prominent position in the Lushai country and given chiefs to almost every community in it. The Lushais or Duliens do not, however, form a majority of the population. There are now-a-days no pure villages of any one tribe, although such existed, I believe, formerly.'

With regard to the Lushëis reported from Lungleh, these are, according to a note kindly prepared by Major J. Shakespear, the people who understand Lushëi.

'Among them are several who among themselves speak other languages, some of which appear to differ so materially from Lushēi as to be hardly entitled to be called dialects of it. Amongst these, the best known are Rāltē and Ngentē, but probably many others are still used in parts of the hills. It is impossible, as yet, to estimate the number of persons speaking these languages, as they are scattered about among the different villages, and their number could only be ascertained by taking a careful census. It appears probable that these languages will gradually cease to be used. At present there are villages in the North Lushāi Hills, in which there are large Rāltē communities, who speak their own language and hardly understand Lushēi; but it is probable that these will gradually break up and cease using their own language. All these tribes are called by us Lushāi, and by themselves Zao, and by the Eastern tribes, whom we call Chin, Mēr.'

Ngentē is a dialect of Lushēi, specimens of which have been procured, and which will be treated below. But we have very little information with regard to other dialects. Fannai is said to be a Lushēi dialect. It is spoken in the South Lushēi Hills between their Eastern border and the Koladyne River, from about Jaduna to about Dopura, but we have no further information about it. The Lushēis are often divided into Western Lushēis, west of the Sonai and north of the Darlung peak and the Moifang range; Eastern Lushēis, east of the Sonai towards Arbam Peak; Kairuma, in the extreme southeast corner of the North Lushai Hills; and Howlongs north and north-east of Lungleh and south of the Sailam. But this division seems to be based on other than linguistic grounds.

Standard Lushëi is relatively well known. Brojo Nath Shaha, and the Pioneer Missionaries J. Herbert Lorrain and Fred. W. Savidge have written grammars. The grammar of the latter is accompanied by a full Lushëi-English and English-Lushëi Dictionary, and word lists are to be found in many of the sources mentioned below. Mr. Davis remarks that the Lushëi language has a closer resemblance to Rāngkhōl than to Thādo, and this notwithstanding the fact that the Rāngkhōls had been completely ousted from the Lushai Hills by the Thādos before the Lushëis ever entered that territory. According to the same authority, Lushëi is also connected with the Nāgā languages and with Manipurī, and closer with the former than with the latter. Compare, however, the general introduction to the Kuki-Chin group.

There is no written literature. But several tales and songs are current. Major Shakespear has given us specimens of the former and Colonel Lewin and Brojo Nath Shaha of the latter.

The following is a list of authorities dealing with the Lusheis:—

Lewin, Capt. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Contains an account of the Lhoosai pp. 98 and ff. and vocabularies, Lhoosai, etc., pp. 146 and ff.

LEWIN, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL T. H.,—Hill Proverbs of the Inhabitants of the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

Calcutta, 1873.

LEWIN, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL T. H.,—Progressive Colloquial Exercises in the Lushai Dialect of the 'Dzo' or Kuki Language, with Vocabularies and popular Tales. Calcutta, 1874. Contains on p. 2 a Vocabulary, Lushai, etc.

CAMPBELL, SIE GEORGE,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces, and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Vocabulary, Lushai, etc., pp. 189 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Statistical Account of Bengal. Volume vi., London, 1876. Contains an account of the Lushais, pp. 59 and ff.

Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Volume xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on the Lushais, p. 240; Vocabulary, Lushai (after Lewin), etc., p. 255.

Brojo Nath Shaha,—A Grammar of the Lúshái Language, to which are appended a few illustrations of the Zau or Lúshái popular songs and translations from Æsop's Fables. Calcutta, 1884.

ANDERSON, J. D.,—A short List of Words of the Hill Tippera language, with their English equivalents.

Also of Words of the Language spoken by Lushais of the Sylhet Frontier. To which have been added... Lushai Equivalents from the Dialect spoken by the Lushais of the Chittagong Frontier: these latter are taken from Captain Lewin's Exercises in the Lushai Language. Shillong, 1885.

SOPPITT, C. A.,—A short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (districts Cachar, Sylhet, Någa Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and a Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887. Lushai Vocabulary, pp. 86 and ff.

B., H. R.,-The Lushais. 1873 to 1889. Shillong, 1889.

Chambers, O. A.,—Handbook of the Lushai Country —— Compiled in the Intelligence Branch.

Calcutta, 1889. Contains Vocabularies, Lushai (Kuki), etc.

GAIT, E. A.,—Report on the Census of Assam for 1891. Shillong, 1892. Contains a note on the Lushai, p. 182, and on the Kuki-Lushai tribes, p. 251.

BAINES, J. A.,—Census of India, General Report. London, 1893. Note on the Kúki-Lushái group, p. 150.

ELLES, COLONEL, E. R., -Military Report on the Chin-Lushai Country. Simla, 1893.

DAVIS, A. W.,-Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills. Shillong, 1894.

HUTCHINSON, R. H. SNEYD, - Vocabulary of the Lushai Language. Calcutta, 1897.

LORRAIN, J. HERBERT, AND FEED. W. SAVIDGE.—A Grammar and Dictionary of the Lushui Language (Dulien dialect). Shillong, 1898.

SHAKESPEAR, MAJOR, -Mi-zo leh vai thon thu [Lushei and foreign tales]. Shillong, 1898.

Mizo zir tir bu [Iushei Primer]. Printed and published by Authority. Shillong, 1899.

The following sketch of the Lushëi grammar is based on the grammars by Brojo Nath Shaha and Lorrain and Savidge, to which the student is referred for further details.

Pronunciation.—The pronunciation of the vowels seems, in many cases, to be rather indistinct. Thus the suffix of the past tenses of the verbs is $t\bar{a}$ or $t\hat{a}$, the verb 'to come' is written hong, hon, ho, or háng, etc. A before ng has the sound of u in English 'but.' Nang, thou, is therefore often written nung. Final vowels of words and syllables are generally long. G as an initial letter only occurs in foreign words. J is said to be a foreign sound. It occurs, however, instead of z, in the second specimen, where it is probably only a method of representing the sound of the latter letter. The sounds sh and s are often interchangeable. The liquids l, m, n, r, can be aspirated, and are then followed by the letter h. When h is placed at the end of a syllable or word, it denotes that the sound must be abruptly shortened. Some phonetical changes must be noted. Thus ei often becomes \bar{e} , as in nei, $n\bar{e}$, to have; ei, \bar{e} , to eat. A euphonic v is inserted after a word ending in o or oh, when a vocalic suffix is added. Thus lo, field, lo-v- \bar{a} , in the field. Brojo Nath Shaha mentions several other 'euphonic' letters, thus ch, m, l, etc. Final consonants are often silent, thus po or pok, even, etc.

Articles.—The *indefinite* article is the numeral *pa-khat*, one. Demonstrative pronouns or relative participles supply the place of the *definite* article.

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Nouns.—Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. Names of animals, unless distinguished by suffixes, and all inanimate objects are neuter. The same word often denotes beings of different gender, when no ambiguity ensues. Thus $f\bar{a}$, child; \bar{u} , elder brother or sister; nao, younger brother or sister. Gender is distinguished in the following ways:—

- Often, in the case of nouns of relationship, by using different words; thus, pā, father; nū, mother: pā-sāl, husband; nū-pui, wife: pā, paternal uncle; pū, maternal uncle;
- 2. By suffixing $p\bar{a}$ for the masculine, and $n\bar{u}$ for the feminine; thus, $f\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, son; $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, daughter: thien- $p\bar{a}$, male friend; thien- $n\bar{u}$, female friend;
- Proper nouns of the masculine gender end in ā, those of the feminine gender in i, thus Chalbongā, Lalrūmi;
- 4. In the case of full-grown animals chal or $p\bar{a}$ is suffixed to denote the male, and pui or $n\bar{u}$ to denote the female, thus $k\bar{e}l$ -chal, a he-goat, $k\bar{e}l$ -pui, a she-goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. Number is not indicated when it appears from the context. The suffixes of the plural are te, ho, te-ho, ho-te, zong-zong, and zong-zong-te. Thus, thien-te, friends; $m\bar{s}$ -ho, men; $l\bar{a}l$ -te-ho, chiefs, etc. A postposition sometimes precedes the plural suffix, thus $thing\ ph\bar{e}n$ - $\bar{a}\ te$, behind the trees.

Case.—The simple theme is commonly used to denote the cases of the subject, the direct and the indirect object, the vocative and the genitive. Suffixes are used to denote cases as follows:—

Case of the agent.—The suffix in, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject when followed by a transitive verb in the active voice; thus, $a-p\bar{a}-in$ $a-t\bar{i}-a$, by the father he said.

Genitive.—Occasionally the word a is added; thus, ka- $farn\bar{u}$ a-puan, my sister's cloth. This a seems to be identical with the pronominal prefix, and the above may be translated as well 'my sister her cloth'. In the case of feminine nouns i may be substituted for a; thus, ka far- $n\bar{u}$ i puan, my sister's cloth. When the governing noun is understood the genitive takes the suffix $t\bar{a}$; thus, $s\bar{a}$ puan $s\bar{a}$ ka- $p\bar{a}$ -ta a- $n\bar{i}$, that cloth that my father's it is. This $t\bar{a}$ is probably identical with the suffix of the past tense, which is often added to adjectives in many Kuki-Chin dialects. A form such as ka- $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ is therefore a kind of relative participle.

Locative.—The suffixes of the locative are in and \bar{a} ; thus, ril-ru-in, in the heart; lov- \bar{a} , in the fields.

Vocative.—The vocative singular takes no termination. The suffix u is used in forming the vocative plural as also the imperative plural, see below. Thus $m\bar{\imath}$ -te u, O men. In proper nouns the terminations \bar{a} and i are dropped in the vocative; thus, Chalbong, O Chalbongā; Liangkung, O Liangkungi. Short names retain the termination; thus, $Kh\bar{u}m\bar{a}$, Tungi. The terminations \bar{a} and i are sometimes added to the vocative of other nouns. Thus thien- \bar{a} , thien- \bar{i} , O friend (male and female respectively).

The suffixes are added to the adjective when it follows the noun; thus, lhim tak-in, rejoicing great-in.

Adjectives.—The comparative degree is formed by adding zok, zák, more, to the positive. Thus, nao-pang-zok, the younger. The particles of comparison are aiin, aiia, or

 $nh\bar{e}k$ -in. Thus, $f\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ ain a-shang- $z\bar{a}k$, the son the daughter than he-tall-more. The superlative may also be formed by adding ber, very most, to the positive; thus, $p\bar{u}an$ $th\bar{a}$ ber, the best cloth. Adverbs may be formed by suffixing in, or tak-in, to the adjective; thus, $th\bar{a}$, good, $th\bar{a}$ -tak-in, well. Their comparative degree is formed by adding leh, zual, or deo, their superlative by adding ber.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The prefix pa in the first nine numerals is a generic prefix and is often dropped when the numerals qualify a noun. It is, however, retained when human beings are spoken of. There are apparently no other generic prefixes. The ordinals are formed by adding $n\bar{a}$, the suffix of a relative participle, to the cardinal numbers; thus, $pa-th\bar{u}m-n\bar{a}$, third; $pa-ng\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$, fifth.

. Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular.

kei-mā, kei, ka, I.

kei-mā, kei-ā, ka, my.

kei-mā-tā, keimā-a-tā, kei-a-tā, ka-tā, mine.

kei-mā-min, kei-min, min, mi, me.

nang-mā, nang, i, thou.

nang-mā, nang-ā, i, thy.

nang-mā-tā, nang-mā-a-tā, i-tā, thine.

nang-mā, nang, thee.

a-mā, a-ni, a, he, she, it.

a-mā, a-ni, a, his, her, its.

a- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, a- $m\bar{a}$ -a- $t\bar{a}$, a-ni- $t\bar{a}$, a- $t\bar{a}$, his, hers, its.

a- $m\bar{a}$, a-ni, him, her, it.

Plural.

kei-mā-ni, kei-ni, kan, we.

kei-mā-ni, kei-ni, kan, our.

kei-mā-ni-tā, kei-ni-tā, kan-tā, ours.

kei-mā-ni-min, kei-ni-min, min, mi, us.

nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, in, you.

nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, in, your.

nang-mā-ni-tā, nang-ni-tā, in-tā, yours.

nang-mā-ni, nang-ni, you.

an-mā-ni, an-ni, an, they.

an-mā-ni, an-ni, an, their.

an-mā-ni-tā, an-ni-tā, an-tā, theirs.

an-mā-ni, an-ni, them.

The accusative case of the second person is frequently formed by omitting or retaining the pronoun, and affixing che, a-che, or chi- \bar{a} in the singular, and che-u or a-che-u, in the plural. Thus, ka- $v\bar{e}l$ -ang che, I will strike thee. The forms ka, kan; i, in; a, an, are also used as pronominal prefixes to the verbs. See below. The suffixes used in the declension of nouns are also used after pronouns. The suffix of the agent in may be contracted after a preceding vowel; thus, an, by him.

The Reflexive pronoun is expressed by prefixing in to the verb; thus, kan-in-hao-e, we mutually quarrelled.

The **Demonstrative pronouns** are hei, he, hei-hi, he-hi, this; så, så-så, that; khā, khā-khā, that (near you); khu, khu-khu, that down there; khi, khi-khi, that up there; chu, chu-chu, that. Plural heng, heng-hi, sång, etc. When any of the compound forms is used, the noun they qualify is placed between the two components; thus, he khuā hi, this village. When the suffix of the agent in is added, these pronouns become hian, sån, khan, chuan, etc.

There is no Relative pronoun.—The idea of a relative pronoun is expressed by using relative participles or verbal nouns. Thus, ka-vuak-lai-in, I-beating-time-at, at the time when I was beating; a-om-nā khua, he being village, the village in which he was; sấ mī sấ i-mhu-tu, this man you seeing, this man whom you see; nimin-ā mī lō-kal, yesterday man came, the man who came yesterday; puan nak-tūk-ā ka-lei-tūr, cloth to-morrow I to-buy, the cloth which I shall buy to-morrow. A demonstrative pronoun is frequently used as a kind of correlative; thus, nao-pang a-puan ka-lāk,

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khā a-lō-kal-ang, the boy his cloth I took, he he will come. A relative clause is put in the plural by affixing te, thus puan ka-mhu te, the clothes which I saw.

The Interrogative pronouns are tu, tu nge, tu má, who? eng, eng nge, zeng nge, eng má, what? kho-i-nge, which? thus, tu-in nge vēl che, who hit you? When a is prefixed to an interrogative pronoun, the meaning becomes partitive; thus, a-tu nge i-ko, whom of them do you call? Tih, this, may be used with an interrogative pronoun to denote relativity; thus, tu nge ni, tih i-rhia em, who was it? do you know this? do you know who it was?

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are the following:—

Singular,—ka, I i, thou a, he, she, it.

Plural, kan, we in, you an, they.

When the subject is a neuter noun a also denotes the third person plural. When two singular nominatives are connected by means of $nhen-\bar{a}$, with, the verb takes the plural particle; thus, $Lienbik\bar{a}$ $nhen-\bar{a}$ kan in-hao-ve, (I) Lienbik \bar{a} with, we mutually quarrelled. The prefixes are omitted when the verb governs a personal pronoun of the first person as its object; when the subject is an interrogative pronoun or an infinitive; and in the imperative tense.

The root alone is freely used to denote **present** and **past tenses**; thus, eng an- $t\bar{\imath}$, what (do) they do? $a-t\bar{\imath}$, he said.

The **Past tense** is also formed by adding the suffix $t\bar{a}$ or $t\hat{a}$; thus, a-pem- $t\bar{a}$, he migrated.

The suffix of the **Future** is ang; thus, ka-kal-ang, I will go. The future is also used to denote what is presumed to be true; thus, a-ni-ang-e, it may be.

Throughout these tenses of the indicative mood an e or a may be suffixed, apparently without altering the meaning; thus, kei-mā ka-ni-e, I am; kei-mā ka-in-e, I drank; kei-mā ka-shoi-ang-e, I will say; a-tī-a, he said.

The suffix of the **Imperative** is ro, plural ro-u, in the third person ro-se; thus, $p\bar{e}$ -ro, give thou; $l\bar{a}$ -ro-u, bring you; ni-ro-se, let him, them, be. The first person is formed by the particle $\bar{\imath}$, prefixed to the future; thus, $\bar{\imath}$ - \bar{e} -ang, let us feast. Compare Participles.

The suffix of the **Negative imperative** is $sh\bar{u}$, $sh\bar{u}$ -u, $sh\bar{u}$ -se, i $sh\bar{u}$ ang; thus, shoi $sh\bar{u}$, do not say; i-shoi $sh\bar{u}$ -ang, let us not say.

A Conditional is formed by adding chuan, if, to the verb; thus, kan om chuan, if we remain, lit. we remain, that-being. Often also the present participle is used to form conditional tenses.

The Infinitive or Verbal noun is identical with the root; thus, ei, to eat; $lh\bar{a}$ -tak-a a- $l\bar{a}$ -om-lai-in, distance-great-at his-still-being-time-at, when he was still far off; a- $r\bar{a}l$ - $z\bar{a}$ -ve-le, its-spending-completing-time-at, when it had become thoroughly spent. Another verbal noun is formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}$; thus, a-om- $n\bar{a}$ -khua, his-being-village, the village in which he was. The same forms may also be considered as relative participles. See Relative pronouns. The infinitive of purpose is formed by adding the suffixes $t\bar{u}r$, $t\bar{u}r$ -in, $n\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}r$, $n\bar{a}n$, an, in; thus, ei- $t\bar{u}r$, to eat; veng- $t\bar{u}r$ -in, to watch.

A Noun of Agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus, $mh\bar{u}$ -tu, one who sees; ngai-tu, a lover, etc.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is in, in form identical with the suffix of the locative. Thus, a-nhā thok-in a-om-tā, his-work doing he remained.

The suffix of the **Conjunctive participle** is a generally with the pronominal prefix; thus, a-sum a-khām-a khua-lam lhā-tak-a a-kal-tā-a, his property he collecting village far to he migrated. This form is very commonly used in a sentence which is complete in construction, but dependent on a subsequent clause to complete the meaning of the speaker. Another participle is formed by adding $l\bar{a}$ or lang, preceded by i, u, or she, according to the person denoted. Thus, shoi-i-lā, I-saying, if I say; shoi-tā-i-lā, I having said. If $m\bar{a}$ is inserted after the root, the meaning becomes 'although.' Thus, ni-mā-she-lā, that being although, nevertheless. This participle ending in $l\bar{a}$ is usually substituted for the first of two connected imperatives, as a conjunctive participle; thus, kal-u-lang lei-roh, going buy, go and buy.

The **Passive voice** is said to be formed by combining the root or the infinitive of the principal verb with the verb substantive. A long vowel in the root is shortened. Thus, pe a-ni-ang-e, it will be given; ei-tūr a-ni-ange, it shall be eaten. In reality, however, there is no passive voice, as different from the active. In, the suffix of the agent, when added to the subject, shows that the verb must be translated as active. In other cases the context shows how to translate. A clause such as $a-m\bar{a}$ $f\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ ka-vua, his son's my-beating, may be translated 'I beat his son,' and 'his son was beaten by me.'

Compound verbs are in very common use. The principal prefixes are zuk (motion downwards); han (motion upwards and towards the speaker); $l\bar{o}$, ron (motion towards), and va (motion on level ground).

Causatives are formed by adding the verb $t\bar{\imath}r$, to cause; thus, kal- $t\bar{\imath}r$, to cause to go, to send.

Desideratives are formed by means of the verb du, to wish, or some synonymous verb. Thus, $a-l\bar{u}t-du-loh-v\bar{a}$, he to-enter-wished not.

Potentiality is indicated by the verb thei, to be able; thus, ka-kal-thei-loh-ve, I go cannot. Other words frequently used in forming compounds are dan, to be about; reng and $th\bar{\imath}n$, denoting continuity; sak, meaning 'for,' 'from'; $sh\bar{e}ng$, completely; $v\bar{e}k$, entirely; $m\bar{e}k$, forming a present definite, etc.

The **Negative particle** is *loh*, suffixed to the root. $N\bar{e}m$ and $n\bar{a}ng$ are sometimes substituted for *loh-ve* and *loh-vang*. Thus ka-ni-loh-ve or $ka-ni-n\bar{e}m$, I am-not. The negative imperative is formed by suffixing $sh\bar{u}$. See above.

Interrogative particles are em, em-ni, e-lo, má, e-má, lo-vem-ni, ne-má, na-nge. Thus, i-kal-ange em, will you go? kal i-du e-má, do you wish to go?

Other words are freely treated as verbs. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ a- $th\bar{a}$ -e, the man he is good; an- $m\bar{a}$ -ni- $t\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}r$ -in, for their sake; an in-thien-e, they are mutually friends.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, indirect object, direct object, verb. In interrogative sentences the direct object generally precedes the indirect one. Demonstratives are put at the beginning of the sentence. A genitive is generally placed immediately before the governing noun. Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify. Adverbs are placed before adjectives and after verbs.

I am indebted to Messrs. Savidge and Lorrain for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Lushëi. Another specimen, representing the dialect spoken in the South Lushai Hills, has been prepared by Mr. Sneyd Hutchinson, Superintendent of the South Lushai Hills. A list of Standard Words and Phrases will be found on pp. 160 and ff. It is due to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C.

[No. 10.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP

LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

SPECIMEN I.

(Messrs. F. W. Savidge and J. H. Lorrain, 1896.)

pa-nhih a-në. A-nau-pang-zâk-in tū-in-e-mâ fā-pā a-pā nhena. he-had. The-young-more-by his-father Man a-certain-by sons twoto, 'ka-pa, rō ka-chanai min pe-râh,' a-tīa. Tin a-sum an 'my-father, property-of my-share give, he-said. Then his-property them mepa-nhih nhen-a a-shem-a. Nī rē-lō-tean a-nau-pang-zâk-in a-sum a-zā-in Day long-not the-young-more-by his-property twoamong he-divided. khua-lam lhā-tak-a a-kal-tā-a, chu-ta-chuan nūam-lū-tuk-in a-khâm-vek-a he-collected-entirely-and country far-very-to he-went, luxuriously there chua-om-a a-sum a-bō-rāl-tīr-tā-a. A-rāl-zâ-ve-le he-being his-property that he-to-be-lost-to-disappear-caused. It-lost-completely-when chu khua-lam chu na-sha-tak-in an-tām-tā-a, ē-tūr a-tlā-chham-a. Tin chu lam that country that exceedingly they-hungered, to-eat he-lacked. Then that place tū-e-mâ nhena chuan nhā-thok-in a-va-tang-a; chu mī village-in man a-certain with there work-doing he-went-engaged-himself; that man chuan vok châ-te pe-tūr-in a-lō-lam-a a-tīr-a. Eng-lo kâm vok-in that-by pigs food giving-for his-fields-direction-in he-sent. Any husks an-ē khā a-nī-pâh-in ē-puar a-du-em-em-a; tu-ma-in eng-ma an-pe-shī-lō-va. they-ate that him-also-by to-eat-his-fill he-wished-much; anybody anything they-gave-not. A-harh-le-ve-le, 'ka-pā nhena in-lhâh-fā-te châ ē-shen-lō-va nē He-awoke-when, 'my-father with servants food to-eat-finishing-not have they tam-vē-nen, kē lā-chu he-ta ril-ţām-in ka-thī-dân-a. Ka-thō-vang-a ka-pā many-also, I but here belly-hunger-in I-dying-am. I-arise-will my-father nhena ka-va-shoi-ang-a, "ka-pā, le nangma mit-mhū-in vān-a-mī chunga to"my-father, heaven-its-man against I-go-say-will, andthyeye-sight-in thil ka-tī-sual-e. Ka mhing fā-pā vua i ka-nī-lō-ve; tlāk i I-did-evil. My name thy son to-bear worthy I-am-not; thee with in-lhâh-fā pa-khat ang-in min shīem-ve-râh;"' a-tī-a. a-thova Tin a-pā servantonelikeme make-also," he-said. Then he-arising his-father nhen-a a kal-tā-a. Chu-ti-chuan lhā-tak-a a-lā-om-lai-in a-lō-mhū-a, a-pā-in he went. There far-very he-yet-was-time-at his-father-by he-towards-saw, a-khâ-ngai-a, a-tlan-a, a ir-a nhen-a a-fā-pā-in, chuk-tuah-a a-fâp-a. A he-pitied. he-ran, his neck-on embracing he-kissed. his-son-by, Him

chunga le nangma mit-mhū-in thil ka-ti-sual-e, ka-mhing 'ka-pa, van-a-mi eye-sight-in thing I-did-evil, my-name 'my-father, heaven's-man toand thytlāk ka-nī-lō-ve, a-tīa. Ni-mā-she-la a-vua a-pā-in a-boih-te fā-pā I-am-not,' he-said. Nevertheless his-father his-slaves son its-bearing worthy han-lā-thuē-ū-lā thā-ber han-shin-tīr-râh-ū, nhen-a. 'pūan here-bringing-quickly cloth. here-put-on-let(-him), besthis-hand-on zung-bun-te a-ke-phāh-a phē-kok-te bun-tīr-râh-ū, lhīm-tak-in ī-ē-ang-ū; he ka-fā-pā his-feet-on shoes put, joyfully let-us-eat; this my-son finger-rings a-lō-nung-le-tā a-thi, a-ni-e; a-bō-va kan-mhū-le-tā a-nī-e,' a-tī-a. this he-died, he-here-revived-again he-is; he-lost-was we-saw-again he-is,' he-said. Tin lhim-tak-in an-om-ţan-tā-a. they-to-be-began. joy fully

Tin a-fā-pā ū-pā-zâk lō-va a-om. In-a a-lō-thlen-dân-in Then his-son old-more field-in he-was. House-to he-back-to-come-about-being Tin boih tū-e-mâ a-kō-va, 'chu eng-nge an-lām-thâm a-rhe-tā-a. drum-sound and dancing-sound he-heard. Then slave some he-calling, 'that what 'i-nau nī-tā?' a-tī-a a-zât-a. nhena, a-lō-thleng-tā-a, hīm-tak-in to, 'thy-younger-brother he-back-came, is?' he-saying he-asked. Him safely i-pā-in a-mhū-le-a-vāng-in, ruai a-theh,' a-tī-a. Tin he-saw-again-because, thy-father-by feast he-gives,' he-said. Then he-angry-becoming a-lūt-du-lō-va; a-pā a-lō-dāk-a a-thlem-a. Nī-mā-she-la house-in he-to-enter-wished-not; his-father he-came-out he-entreated. Nevertheless nhen-a, 'Rhe-râh, kum-khua he chin hī i-nhā ka-thok-a, a-pā i-thū 'Listen, always this till this thy-work his-father I-did, thy-word ka-oi-lō-ngai-shī-lō-va; kel-tē min lā-hi ka-thien-te nhen-a lhim-na-tūr *I-to-obey-not-considered-not*; my-friends withfeasting-for kidme pe-ngai-shī-lo. Chu-tin he i fā-pā hī nâ-chi-zūar nhen-a to-give-considered st-not. Now this thy son this harlotswith thy-property ē-rāl-vek-tū, hī a-lō-kal-ve-le a-mā-tān ruai i-theh-vē-a,' a-ti-a wasted-all-who, hehe-coming him-for feast thou-givest-also,' he-said ' ka-fā-pā, a-chhāng-a. Tin a-nhen-a, ka-nhen-a i-om-reng-a-lâm, he-answered. Then him-to, 'my-son, me-with thou-to-be-always-contented-art, ka-tā a-piang i-tā a-nī-e. Lhim-tak le lâm-tak-in om mine whatever thine it-is. Happiness-great and pleasure-great-in to-be a-thā a-lâm; he nau hī a-thī a-lō-nung-le-tā it-good it-well-is; this thy younger-brother this he-died he-came-alive-again he-is, bō-va kan-mhū-le-tā a-nī-e, a-tī-a. he lost-was we-saw-again he-is,' he-said.

[No. II.]

TIBETO BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

SOUTHERN DIALECT.

(LUNGLEH, LUSHAI HILLS.)

SPECIMEN II.

(R. H. Sneyd Hutchinson, Esq., 1897.)

Vunjāthangā kan khuā a hon masak-in ka mhu-loh-ve. Kan Vunjāthangā our village he coming first-at I saw-not. Our village Mualkai-ā in-ā Chalbongā ka mhu. Mualkai-ā in-ā Mualkai-ā Chalbongā of Mualkai's house-in IMualkai's saw. house-in Mualkai's tum-tak-in in-e. $\mathbf{K}\mathbf{a}$ rui-dân-ve-le, ka Vunjāthangā zudrink much-very I drank. I getting-drunk-when, Vunjāthangā heLienbikā nhen, kan Mualkai-ā lo-hong-ā. in-ā Mualkai's house-in Lienbikā with, arrived-(came-in). wemutually-quarrelled. Thiltlang-ā a kal, tūn-e-mo vel-e. Mhānā ka ū Lienbikā Formerly my eldest-brother Thilllang-to he went, someone beat-him. Lienbikā in-hao-vin, Vunjāthangā pok a tel-ve-e. nhenā kan Lienbikā withwe quarrelling, Vunjāthangā even he mixed-himself-up. Lienbikā. in-hao-Vunjāthangā ka-beng-ā. Nakin-devā Mualkai an, le Vunjāthangā I-struck (with-the-hand). Later-on Mualkai he. 'you-quarlei-lā-in-tīro,' tī. vā · tankā khat-in zu i min you buying-must-cause-to-drink, relling rupee one-of drink me he-told. zong-tūr-in ka kal-ā, ka lei-ā. Mualkai in-ā kan dā. went, I bought-it. Mualkai's house-in we put-it. Drink to-search-for I thleng-in Vunjathanga le Chalbongā tin-tā. Zu kan an reaching Vunjāthangā and $Chalbong \bar{a}$ they had-scattered. Drink we prepared-Mualkai an, 'Vunjāthangā nhen, in-hao-vā Chalbongā zovan, in Mualkai he, 'Vunjāthangā with, you having-quarrelled Chalbonga having, Vunjāthangā Chalbongā Vunjāthangā va-ko-ro,' tī. le min and Vunjāthangā must-go-and-call,' me he-told. $Chalbong \bar{a}$ and Vunjāthangā Ingai-lovi $p\bar{a}$ Marlutā in-ā ko-tūr-in ka kal. Tin Chalbongā of-Ingai-lovi the-father Marluta's house-to to-call There went. Chalbongā in-ang,' tī. ' Horo, kan ka mu-ā ka kai-tovā. zu drink-will, Isaid. aroused-him. ' Come, drink we he sleeping IVunjathanga ka ka rui-e: ka kal-thei-loh-ve,' tī. Tin 'Zu a By-drink I drunk-am; I Then Vunjāthangā I go-cannot,' he said. kai-tovā, 'ka du-loh-ve,' a tī. Vov tum-tak-in ka soam-ā, aroused, 'I want-not,' he said. Times I urged-him, 'with-drink I many

ka Chu-mi-lai-in kei po zu tī. kal-pe-loh-ve, ka rui-e; 1 1 even with-drink At-that-time to-go-am-not-able, he said. I drunk-am; ka a-thā-tak-in ka lei-ā, zuAnmāni-tā-tūrin rui-ā. good-way-very-in had-bought, I For-them drinkwas-drunk. Thing \mathbf{a} tī-in ka tin-ur-ā. mi-zui-du-loh-vā kovā, I picked-up, A-stick his \boldsymbol{I} called-them, me-follow-to-will-not saying got-angry. dik-tak-in ka vuak Voy enjange vuak-e. lu-a Istruck exactly how-many IΙ struck. Timeshead-on Chalbongā Ka-vuak-lai-in thum a-ni-ange. Vov shov-thei-loh. $Chalbong\bar{a}$ I-striking-time-at it-may-be. Times three to-say-am-not-able. rhe-loh. engtinge-a-om ka-vuak-in Vunjāthangā chel-dân-e. how-he-was know-not. my-striking-from Vunjāthangā preventing-was. me täng-härä rhe-loh, tin ka ka Koya-nge ka kal kal-ā. Ka I becoming-sober but know-not, IWhere Iwent I went-away. kan inkhat Vunjāthangā nhen VOY po om-e. ka ka in mutuallyeven 100 timeonce withwas. Vunjathangahouse-in in-hao-vā. vangin kan Zu rui hao-loh. quarrelled. By-drink drunk being me quarrelled-not.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Statement of Nothanga, accused of culpable homicide.

I did not see Vunjathanga when he first came to our village. I saw Chalbonga in the house of Mualkai of our village. I drank much in Mualkai's house; he provided the liquor. Vunjathanga came into the house when I was getting drunk. I quarrelled with Lienbika of my village in Mualkai's house. My elder brother had gone some time back to Thiltlang village, where someone beat him. Vunjathanga entered into my quarrel with Lienbika. I struck Lienbika with my hand. I also struck Vunjathanga. Later Mualkai told me that as I had quarrelled in his house, I must give one rupee worth of liquor and treat them all. I went and searched for liquor, bought it and took it to Mualkai's house. When I got there Vunjathanga and Chalbonga had gone away. We prepared the liquor, and when it was ready Mualkai said I ought to fetch Chalbonga and Vunjathanga as I had quarrelled with the latter. I went to fetch Vunjathanga and Chalbonga from the house of Marluta, father of Ingailovi. I found Chalbonga asleep and I awoke him and asked him to come and drink. He said he was drunk and could not come. I then aroused Vunjathanga; he also refused to come. I tried to persuade him, but he would not come, saying he was drunk. I myself was very drunk at the time, and getting very angry at his refusing to come, when it was on his account that I had bought the liquor, I picked up a piece of wood and struck him on the head, I cannot say exactly how many times. It may have been three times. Chalbonga tried to prevent me. I did not know the effect of my blows on Vunjathanga. I then went away, where, I cannot say, but on becoming sober I found myself in my own house. I have never had any former quarrel with Vunjathanga, and it was only because I was drunk that I quarrelled with him then.

NGENTE.

The Ngentē dialect is spoken in the South Lushai Hills, chiefly among the Tangluas who reside in the villages round Demagiri, and also in many of the Western Howlong villages. It has not been possible to get an estimate of the number of speakers. The term Howlong is, says Mr. Davis, 'used by us to denote one portion of the Lushai race, and was applied to the villages north and north-east of Lungleh and south of the Sailam, on account of one of the original chiefs of this section having had his village on the Howlong Hill. The people themselves do not, so far as I have been able to ascertain, recognise the name Howlong.' With regard to the Tangluas, Colonel Elles, in his Military Report on the Chin-Lushai country, makes the following statement:—

'In 1871-72, when the first Lushai expedition took place, a Howlong chief named Rutton Poï had made a somewhat independent position for himself. He became an intermediary between Government and the people of his tribe, and figured for some time as an important personage. He founded a separate clan called Thanglua, of which his son Lalseva is the recognized head. The chiefs Lalrhima and Tlangbuta, whose names appear in the Howlong genealogy, are also said to belong to this clan, as also Vanuna and Vanruma.'

I am indebted to Mr. C. B. Drake-Brockman for the preparation of a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in the Ngentē dialect. The following remarks on the grammar of this dialect are entirely based on the specimen. The translation is very careful, and Mr. Drake-Brockman has also accompanied it with a few valuable notes which have been incorporated in the grammatical sketch which follows.

Pronunciation.—The pronunciation seems to agree with that of Standard Lushëi. Final vowels are probably long, though the specimen does not mark them as such. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, $heo \cdot v \cdot a \cdot n\bar{a}$, all-it-is. Final consonants are occasionally silent; thus, na and $n\bar{a}t$, to be; ta and $t\bar{a}k$, the suffix of the past tense. We apparently, in one instance, find an intransitive verb beginning with an unaspirated consonant while the initial consonant of the corresponding transitive is an aspirate. Thus, rhal, to squander; but $ti \cdot ral$, to-cause-to-be-squandered, ti being the causative prefix. We find, however, also $ti \cdot rhal$ with the same meaning.

Articles.—The numeral pa-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article. Relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender.—Only one suffix denoting gender occurs, $p\bar{a}$, denoting male human beings. Thus, fa- $p\bar{a}$, child-male, son.

Number.—The number is not marked when it appears from the context. The suffix ngai seems to be used to denote the plural in rual-cham-ngai, friends. The same suffix also occurs in Kōm, Hallām, Banjōgī, Pankhu, etc.

Case.—The formation of cases is the same as in Standard Lushëi. The suffix of the agent is in; the locative is formed by adding in and a, etc. The genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun. An a may be inserted between both; thus, a fa u-pa-ber a ning a zar-a, his son the-eldest his heart it was angry.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and post-positions are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, muang-tak-in, happiness-great in, happily. The suffix of the Comparative is $z\hat{a}k$, and that of the Superlative ber.

A kind of superlative is also effected by repeating the adjective; thus, puan thatha, cloth good-good, the best cloth.

Pronouns.—The following forms of the Personal Pronouns occur:—

ka, I, my i, thou, thy

a, he, it

nang-ma, thine

in, you

an, they their.

All these forms, with the exception of nang-ma, thine, are the short forms used as prefixes. Longer forms probably occur as in Lushēi.

Demonstrative pronouns.—He-ti, this, may be inferred from he-ti-a, here. The pronoun chu, that, only occurs as an emphasising addition to other words; thus, a pachun, his father.

There are no Relative pronouns. The root alone is used as a relative participle; thus, ka fin-lo-lei-in, I wise-not time-at; a pok-a-lei-in, he improvident-being-time-at, on account of his being improvident. It will be seen that this participle is treated as a verbal noun, preceding the qualified word without any suffix or with the addition of a. The word om-na, abode, is probably a relative participle; thus, a om-na khua mi-in, his abode village men with, lit., he being village men with, with the men of the village in which he stayed. A relative clause may also be formed by adding a verbal noun as an adjective; thus, i nao mi-thi, thy brother man-dead, thy brother who was dead.

Interrogative pronouns.—The only form which occurs is $eng-\hat{a}$, what? The same base eng, with the suffixes lo and $k\hat{a}$, is used as an Indefinite pronoun; thus, eng-lo, some, whatever; $eng-k\hat{a}$, everything.

Verbs.—The following pronominal prefixes occur:—

Ka, I; i, thou; in, you; a, he, it; an, they. The prefix in is also used to denote the second person singular in the respectful imperative; thus, in bol-roh, make me.

Thus, ka rhiat, I hear; a ti, he said. The suffixes a and ka may be added, apparently without changing the meaning; thus, ka om-a, I am; a nat-ka-chu, it is-indeed. The verb na or nat, preceded by a, is sometimes added to another verb in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, ang-ve-e-in a-chhem a-nat-ka-chu, like-both-among he-divided it-is-so, he divided indeed equally between the two; ka thi-thel-thel a na, I to-die-about-am it is, I am indeed about to die. Sometimes this form conveys the idea of a perfect; thus, a dam-le-ta a na, he became well again it is, he has become well again.

A Present definite is formed by adding the verb nat, to be, to the root; thus, an lām-nat-ka, they are dancing.

The suffix of the Past tenses is to or tak; thus, ka mhu-le-ta, I saw again; a kal-ta, he went; in mhu-le-tak a-na, you saw again it is.

The suffix of the Future is in; thus, ka ti-in, I will say.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is *roh*, plural *roh-u*; thus, *lo-ngai-roh*, listen; *shen-tir-roh-u*, cause ye him to put on. *Shian* is added to *ro* in the third person; thus, *om-ro-shian*, let him remain. A suffix *i-u* apparently forms imperatives of the second and the third persons; thus, *fa-i-u*, let him eat; *om-i-u*, remain you all.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, bu fak a tum-a, food to-eat he wished. This form is, as remarked above, also used as a

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relative participle. The locative postposition a is very commonly added to this form; thus, a kal-a a pa-in $r\bar{a}l$ -a a mhu-a, his going-in his father distance-at he saw, while he was going his father saw him at a distance. This form is very commonly used as a conjunctive participle; see below. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is a, identical with the locative postposition. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ -ti-zur a $l\bar{a}k$ -a, harlots he getting-for, for the sake of harlots. In riem-zong, feasting-for, the particle zong seems to denote the purpose.

The suffix of the Adverbial participle is in; thus, bol-in in bol-roh, calling you call call me (your servant); tuan-tuan-in ka om-a, hard-working I am.

The suffix of the Conjunctive participle is a; thus, a khām-a khā dang-a a pēm-pui-dai, he gathered-having village other-to he migrated. Compare Verbal noun, above. A conjunctive participle of the future is apparently formed by adding the suffix ur; thus, ka pa kom-a ka kal-ur.... ka ti-in, my father to I-will-go-and..... will-say. Compare the suffix $t\bar{u}r$ of the infinitive of purpose in Lushēi.

The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns, above.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'he was seen again' we find 'I saw him again,' etc. When the subject of a transitive verb is not distinguished by the suffix of the agent, the meaning becomes passive. Thus, bu $f\bar{a}k$ -shen-lo-va a om-a, food eatentirely-not it was, there was so-much food that it could not be eaten up.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning. Thus, háng-thlen, to-come-home-arrive, to come back; háng-chhuak, to-come-go-out, to come out; fák-shen, to-eat-finish, to eat up; pēm-pui-dai, to-go-help-outskirts, to bring to the outskirts of the village; tá-sual, to do-evil, to commit (a sin). The prefix ti forms transitives; thus, ti-ral, to squander. Causatives are formed by adding tir; thus, bun-tir, to cause to put on. The verb nuam, to wish, forms desideratives; thus, a lut-nuam-lo, he to-enterwished-not. Other words used as the last part of compound verbs are khep, still, yet; le, again; thel-thel, to be about; zet, exceedingly, much; zo, all; zo, to be able, etc.

The Negative particle is lo; thus, a mhu-lo-va, he saw-not, he did not get.

Order of Words.—As in standard Lushēi.

It will be seen that Ngentë very closely agrees with Standard Lushëi. The interrogative pronoun eng- \hat{a} corresponds to eng-nge or eng- $m\hat{a}$ in Lushëi. The particle ka added to the root in Ngentë does not seem to occur in the Standard. Lushëi has ni for Ngentë na, to be. The suffix of the future is ang in Lushëi, and in in Ngentë; Lushëi has $t\bar{u}r$ where Ngentë has ur, etc. But in all essential points both agree, and the difference is much smaller than usual between dialects in connected languages.

[No. 12,]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LUSHEI OR DULIEN.

NGENTE DIALECT.

(LUNGLEH, LUSHAI HILLS.)

(C. B. Drake-Brockman, Esq., 1901.)

Mi-rhiam pa-khat-in fa-pā pa-nhit a-nei. Nao-pang-zâk-in a Man he-had. Son-younger one sons two his father 'Ka chanai in pe-roh-u,' tih. An pā-in süm ang-ve-ve-in 'My share you give, he said. Their father property equal-both-among a-chhem a-nat-ka-chu. Na-ta-deo-va a pa sūm nao-pang-zâk-in he-divided it-is-indeed. Shortly-after his father's property son-younger he khâm-a khâ dang-a a pēm-pui-dai-a. pok-a-lei-in A collected village another-to he migrated. He improvident-being his father's ti-ral-zo-va. sūm rhal-zo-ve-lei-na tām-kum a A property he squandered-entirely. His property he squandered-all-when famine-year it tlāh. a-hang 1 a mhu-lo-va. Fāk Ren-vai lung-zing-a-lei-in indeedFood saw-not. Poverty heart-sad-on-account-of occurred. he a tuan-tuan-in, koi-a-koi-a. A om-na khua mi-in a ren-vai-zet-in a His abode village men-for he working-hard, he miserable-very he wandered. ren-vai-a-lei-in om-na mi-in dai-nhai-a om-a. He miserable-on-account-of abode men village-outskirts-near pigs they was. A ren-vai-a-lei-in ril-tām a tuar-zo-lo-va. rhung-tir-a. a He miserable-on-account-of his hunger he to-bear-able-not-was, pigs' to-herd-sent. fāk a tum-a, mi-in an phal-lo. 'Ka fin-lo-lei-in ka food to-eat he wished, villagers they allowed-not. 'I wise-not-being my father's fāk-shen-lo-va a om-a, heti-a ka ril-tām-in ka om-a ka house-in food to-eat-completely-not there was, here I hungry Ia na, a ti. 'Tui-chun ka pa kom-a ka kal-ur, "Pa-thian thi-thel-thel to-die-about-am it is,' he said. 'Now my father to I go-will, "God's mit-mhu-lai-in mi-poih ka tâ-sual-a, i fa-pā tlāk ka na-lo, and thy eye-sight-before evilI committed-have, thy 30n fitI am-not. chhiah-lhâh bol-in in bol-roh," ka ti-in.' Heti-ang ti-in pa kom-a I say-will. This-like saying his father making you make," servant rāl-a ' a mhu-a, A kal-a pa-in a a kal-ta. a pa He going-while his father distance-at he saw, he went. his father he Tin fa-pā-in, 'Pa-thian leh kai-kua a biang a phâ-sak-a. tlān-a a he embraced his cheek he kissed. Then the-son, God's and thy ran

A-hang cannot really be translated. It is equivalent to the Lushei prefix han.

i fa-pā tlāk ka na-lo,' a ti-a. mi-poih ka tâ-sual-a, mit-mhu-lai-in evilI committed-have, thy son fitI am-not,' he said. eye-sight-before Eng-mhan-a-poih-lo a pa-chun a chhiah-lhâ kom-a, 'Puan tha-tha shin-tir-roh-u, 'Cloth good to-put-on-cause, his father his servants to, Never-mind muang-tak kut-te-zem bun-tir-roh-u, phei-kok bun-tir-roh-u, finger-rings to-put-on-cause, shoes to-put-on-cause, happiness-great rejoicing-great ti-a, 'Ka fa-pā a kal-bo-va, thi-tluk-in ka ngai, om-ro-shian.' а remain-let-him,' he said, 'My son he lost-was, dead-like I thought, now fa-i-u,' ti. muang-tak-in eng-kâ \mathbf{a} Muangmhu-le-ta, I seen-again-have, happiness-great-in every-thing eat-let-him,' he said. Happinessom-a. great-in they remained.

riak-a. thlen-zān-in eng-lo ram A fa-pā u-pa-ber eldest jungle-(in) he living-was. He arriving-night-time-at some son Hisrhiat-a. A. fa-pā u-pa-ber \mathbf{a} hâng-thlen-in tum-ri leh lām-ri heard. eldest Hisson he returning-arriving music and dancing khâ-lai-a a chhiah-lhâh a ko-va, 'Eng-â in ti? in lām-ri 'What you do? your dancing and drumhe called, servantvillage-at his dam-tak-in a hâng-thlen-ta, zât-a. ٠I nao ka rhiat, 'Thy younger-brother safely he back-came, sound I hear,' asked. riem-a zu-a-zuk, an lām-nat-ka.' A i pa-in drink-he-giving-is, they dancing-are.' Hisson thy father rejoicing-is in-a lut-nuam-lo. zar-a, ning angry-was, house-in he enter-liked-not. His father he heartithis lo-ngai-roh, kum-khua-in he-ti-chen-'Ka pa, thlēm. hâng-chhuak-a a 'My father, always this-timecame-out he persuaded. listen, shēl-lo, ka rual-cham-ngai tuan-tuan-in ka om-a, i thu ka chin I disobeyed-not, friends thy word my working-hard Iam, riem-zong kel-te pa-khat pâh in pe-lo; i fa-pā hâng-a nâ-ti-zur even you gave-not; thy son came-back prostitutes feasting-for kid one zu-i-zuk-khep-a,' sūm-chang a ti-rhal-zo-va, a lāk-a he getting-for property-share he made-spent, beer-thou-to-drink-still-(gavest),' he said. 'Ka om-zing-a; ka eng-lo chang-chang. A pā-in, kom-a i remainest-always; my whatever property, father, ' Me with thoumi-thi dam-le-ta-a-na, nang-ma hang heo-va-nā; i nao thine indeed all-it-is; thy younger-brother man-dead he became-well-again-it-is, he bo-va tui-in in mhu-le-tāk-a-na, tui-chun muang-tak-in om-i-u,' happiness-great-in remain-you-all,' he said. lost-was now you saw-again-it-is, now

¹ Khâ-lai means the open space just in front of a house, or the vacant space in a village.

BANJŌGĪ.

The Banjogis are a small tribe residing in the Chakma and Boh Mong chiefs' circles in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. According to the Superintendent, the number of speakers is as follows:—

Chakma Boh Mong	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•		•	500
										·To	DTAL		800

The first mention of the tribe is found in an article by Surgeon Macrae, dated 24th January 1799, and mentioned under Authorities below. It is there stated that they often attacked the Kukis, over whom they always prevailed, owing to the fact that they were all united under one Rajah. The Kukis had even to pay an annual tribute of salt to them.

The fullest description of this tribe is that by Captain Lewin, which has been reproduced in an abridged form, by Sir W. W. Hunter. See Authorities below. Hunter says:—

'The Banjogi and Pankho tribes claim to be of common origin, sprung from two brothers, and in language, customs, and habits they exhibit a great similarity. These tribes are not numerically strong, and numbered, in 1869, according to Captain Lewin's estimate, about seven hundred houses, or three thousand souls. According to the census of 1872, there are only 305 Banjogis and 177 Pankhos living within the Chittagong Hill Tracts. There are three villages of Pankhos and one of Banjogis on the borders of the Karnaphuli, but the majority reside in the Bohmong's country to the east of the Sangu river. Their language strongly resembles that of the Lushēis or Kukis, and from their appearance they would be supposed, Captain Lowin states, to be an off-shoot of that tribe. They, however, affirm that they are sprung from the great Shān nation of Burmah, and some of their customs differ materially from those of the Lushēis or Kukis. The great distinction between the two tribes is in the mode of wearing the hair. The Pankhos bind their hair in a knot at the back of their head, but the Banjogis tie up their hair in a knot over the forehead.

Their account of the creation and their own origin is curious, and was told to Captain Lewin as follows:— "Formerly our ancestors came out of a cave in the earth, and we had one great chief named Tlandrok-pah. He it was who first domesticated the gayāl (cow); he was so powerful that he married God's daughter. There were great festivities at the marriage, and Tlandrok-pah made God a present of a famous gun that he had. You can still hear the gun; the thunder is the sound of it. At the marriage our chief called all the animals to help to cut a read through the jungle to God's house, and they all gladly gave assistance to bring home the bride—all save the sloth (the huluk monkey is his grandson) and the earthworm; and on this account they were cursed, and cannot look on the sun without dying. The cave whence man first came out, is in the Lushāi country, close to Vanhuilen's village, of the Burdaiya tribe; it can be seen to this day, but no one can enter. If one listens outside, the deep notes of the gong and the sound of men's voices can still be heard. Some time after Tlandrok-pah's marriage, all the country became on fire, and God's daughter told us to come down to the sca where it is cool; that was how we first came into this country. At that time mankind and the birds and beasts all spoke one language. Then God's daughter complained to her father that her tribe were unable to kill the animals for food, as they talked and begged for life with pitiful words, making the hearts of men soft so that they could not slay them. On this, God took from the beasts and birds the power of speech, and food became plentiful among us. We eat every living thing that cannot speak. At that time also, when the great fire broke from the earth, the world became all dark, and men broke up and scattered into clans and tribes. Their languages also became different. We have two gods: Patyen—he is the greatest; it was he who made the world. He lives in the west, and takes charge of the sun at night. Our other god is named Khozing; he is the patron of our tribe, and we are specially loved by him. The tiger is Khozing's house-dog, and he will not hurt us, because we are the children of his master.'

'Although admitting the supremacy of one great god, the Pankhos and Banjogis offer no worship to him; all their reverence and sacrificial rites are directed towards Khozing, the patron deity of their nation. In some villages are men said to be marked out as a medium of intercourse between Khozing and his children. Such

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a possessed person is called Koa-vang. He becomes filled with, and possessed by, the divine afflatus. During these moments of inspiration he is said to possess the gift of tongues, and to be invulnerable. Koa-vang receives no payment or other consideration, saving the honour accruing to him by his position as interpreter of the wishes and commands of Khozing. The god Khozing is said to have a village somewhere in the hills where he lives, but no mortal can enter it.

'In former times the rite of human sacrifice was common among these tribes; but although they still consider the practice very beneficial, and that great plenty would ensue from it, they are now prevented by fear of the Government. Their great oath is by $d\bar{a}o$, spear, gun, and blood, and it is taken by the side of a river; it is a solemn undertaking, and one only to be performed on great occasions. Should a person disregard this oath he and his family will certainly die a violent death. On ordinary occasions, such as when anything is stolen from a village, an oath is taken on the chief's spear. The spear is struck into the ground at the gate of the village, and every one who passes has to take hold of it and swear that he knows nothing of the matter in question. Whoever will not thus swear, has to account for whatever may have been stolen.

'They have no festivals in the year, save one at the sprouting of the young rice, when the supreme god Patyen, is implored to grant them a plentiful harvest. The Banjogis bury their dead; a chief being interred in a sitting posture. In the time of one of the Rājās, Ngungjungnung, the Pankhos and Banjogis assert that they were the dominant and most numerous of all the tribes in this part of the world. They attribute the decline of their power to the dying out of the old stock of chiefs, to whom divine descent was attributed.'

The traditions of these tribes, as printed above, seem to indicate that they have immigrated into Chittagong from the Lushai Hills. The languages of the Banjōgīs and the Pankhus seem to have been almost identical at the time when Captain Lewin wrote his account. They are related to Lushēi, but still more to the language of the Lais or Baungshès, this latter name being given to the Lais by the Burmese from the way they wear their hair done up in a knot on the fronts of their heads.

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MACRAE, JOHN.—Account of the Kookies or Lunctas. Communicated by J. H. Harrington, Esq., Asiatick Researches, Vol. vii, 1801, pp. 183 and ff. Short mention of the Banjoogees on p. 188.

Lewin, Capt. T. H.,—The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein; with Comparative Vocabularies of the Hill Dialects. Calcutta, 1869. Note on the Bunjogees and Pankhos, on pp. 95 and ff. Vocabularies, Bunjogi, Pankho, etc., on pp. 147 and ff.

HUNTER, W. W.,—A Statistical Account of Bengul. Vol. vi, London, 1876. Note on the Banjogi and Pankho Tribes on pp. 57 and ff.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words of phrases have been received from Chittagong. Both are very corrupt. In the list of words I have corrected evident blunders so far as I could. The forms given by Captain Lewin have been added within parentheses. The specimen has been printed as I have got it. I have subjoined, in italics, a corrected text. This latter is given with the utmost reserve. The interlinear translation which was originally subjoined to the text was so faulty that I have been obliged to prepare a new one. The remarks on Banjōgī grammar given below are based on the corrected text. There remain some passages which I have not been able to analyse, and in such cases the old translation has been printed. All this must be borne in mind in using the grammatical sketch.

Pronunciation.—The list of words generally writes u before n where the specimen and cognate languages have a; thus, kun or kan, we; nung or nang, thou. Lewin writes nung-ma, but $nangmat\bar{a}$. Both spellings represent the sound of u in English 'but'. I have written a throughout. There is also some uncertainty about the pronunciation of other vowels. Thus we find the same words written leh, lah, and la; $p\bar{e}k$ and pa; $\bar{a}i$ and \bar{a} ; $j\bar{o}i$ and zei; $t\bar{o}n\bar{a}$ and $t\bar{u}ana$; $k\bar{o}$ -chon, $k\bar{o}$ - $chuy\bar{a}n$, and ka-choan; $n\bar{a}k$ -shwey and nakse, etc.

The final consonant is often dropped; e.g., the k in $p\bar{e}k$, to give. This is a well-known fact also in other languages of the group. J and z occur in the same words; thus, joi

and zei, what? The pronunciation is probably z in both cases. Sh, ch and s seem to be interchangeable; thus, shi and si, to be; chin- \bar{a} and shin- \bar{a} , from. Ki once occurs instead of khi, that, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral pa-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses supply the place of a definite article. Thus, ma-nu pa-khat, a man; hi in- \bar{a} , this house-in, in the house; $v\bar{o}k$ - $\bar{a}i$ -mi $\bar{a}i$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -la, pigs-by-eaten-being food-by, by the food which the pigs ate.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship or parts of the body are usually preceded by the prefix $k\bar{a}$ in the list of words. This $k\bar{a}$ is, however, probably the possessive pronoun of the first person, Banjōgīs being, like most other connected tribes, incapable of conceiving the idea of such words without reference to some person. See Introduction, pp. 15 and ff.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It may be distinguished by using different words; thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: mi- $n\bar{u}ng$, man; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$, woman. The common suffixes are, in the case of human beings, $p\bar{a}$, male; and $n\bar{u}$, female. In the case of animals they are $ch\bar{a}l$, male, $n\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$, female. Thus, $f\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, son; $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, daughter: rang, or rang- $ch\bar{a}l$, horse; rang $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$, mare: $k\bar{e}l$ $ch\bar{a}l$, a he goat; $k\bar{e}l$ \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$, a she goat. The suffix $p\bar{a}$ seems also to be used to denote male animals; thus, $k\bar{e}l$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, goat-male-young, a kid.

Number.—The number of a noun is not denoted when it appears from the context. The plural may be marked by adding some word meaning 'many,' such as $t\bar{a}m$ and $ng\bar{a}i$. Both may be combined; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ $t\bar{a}m$ $ng\bar{a}i$, fathers. $Ng\bar{a}i$ may apparently be added to the verb; thus, $\bar{a}n$ -ni-khi $\bar{a}n$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{o}m$ - $ng\bar{a}i$, they they made-merry. It seems to mean 'many,' 'very.'

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix ni denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ -ni a sim-thuth, thy father he feast-gives. The list of words translates $m\bar{i}$ sā pa-khat-ni, from a good man, instead of 'by a good man.' The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ $b\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{o}$ -mi- $t\bar{o}$ n-a, my father's servants to. In the Vocative, $m\bar{o}$ may be prefixed to the noun, as is also the case in Lai. Thus, $m\bar{o}$ $p\bar{a}$, O father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions, such as: \bar{a} , in, to; chin- \bar{a} , from, to; dūng, behind; hen, with, to; hi, among, with; in, with, in, through; lag-a, with, to; $l\bar{a}$ n-a, before; la, with, by means of; $n\bar{u}\bar{a}$, behind; $s\bar{u}$ ng-a, into; $t\bar{a}$ ng-a, under; $t\bar{e}\bar{a}$, in; til-a, to; $tl\bar{u}$ n-a, on; tok-in, from; $t\bar{o}$ n-a, before, to; $v\bar{a}$ ng-a, for the sake of, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives generally follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify. Postpositions and suffixes are added to the adjective, and not to the qualified noun, if the adjective follows. Thus, $mi \cdot s\bar{a} - t\bar{a}k$ $chin - \bar{a}$, from a good man; $l\bar{a}m$ $l\bar{a} - t\bar{a}$, way far; $mi - d\bar{a}ng$ pa - khat khua, other one village, another village. $T\bar{a}k$ in $s\bar{a} - t\bar{a}k$ and $t\bar{a}$ in $l\bar{a} - t\bar{a}$, is an adverb meaning 'very.' $\bar{A} - s\bar{a} - lo - mi$ $n\bar{u}n\bar{a}$, a bad woman, is a relative phrase; see relative pronouns, below.

The suffix of comparison seems to be $ng\bar{a}k$ -in, and dau, corresponding to Lai $d\bar{e}yu$ and Lushēi deo, is added to the adjective. Thus, \bar{a} -ni $ng\bar{a}k$ -in hi hi sang-dau, him than this taller. $Ng\bar{a}k$ -in corresponds to Lai $n\bar{a}k$ -in. The list of words also denotes the

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comparative and the superlative by adding $ng\bar{a}i$, very; thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$, better, and best. Another suffix of the superlative seems to be $kh\bar{u}n$; thus, \bar{a} - $shy\bar{a}n$ - $kh\bar{u}n$, highest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. Pa in pa-khat, one, etc., is probably a generic prefix. When the vowel of the following syllable is i, pi may be substituted for pa; thus, pi-li, but in Captain Lewin's list pa-li, four. The numerals pa- $r\bar{a}$, ten, and $k\bar{u}l$, twenty, are identical with the forms in Lai, while tsom, ten, and tsom-ni, twenty, in Captain Lewin's list, correspond to the forms used in Lushēi and connected languages. Numerals usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

 $k\bar{e}i\text{-}m\bar{a}, k\bar{e}i, I.$ $nang\text{-}m\bar{a}, nang, thou.$ $\bar{a}\text{-}m\bar{a}, \bar{a}\text{-}ni, an, he.$ $k\bar{e}i\text{-}ma, k\bar{a}, my.$ $nang\text{-}m\bar{a}, nang, n\bar{a}, thy.$ $\bar{a}\text{-}ni, \bar{a}, his.$ $k\bar{e}i\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{a}, mine.$ $nang\text{-}i, nang\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}ta, thine.$

Plural,-

kan-mā, kan-ni, kan, we, nan-ma, nang-ni, nan, you, an-ni, they. our.

These forms have been collected from the following sources. Captain Lewin gives the forms $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, mine, and nang- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, thine. The rest are found in the specimen and in the list of words. In this latter source the personal pronouns are given twice, in Nos. 14-31, and in Nos. 156-161. The forms nang-i, thine; kan-ni, we; nan-ni, you; and an-ni, they, are the same as in Lai. Demonstrative pronouns may be added to the personal ones, in order to emphasise; thus, $k\bar{e}i$ - $ch\bar{u}$, I; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -khi, he, etc. Demonstrative pronouns are also often used as personal pronouns of the third person. The short forms $k\bar{a}$, kan; $n\bar{a}$, nan; \bar{a} , an, are probably all possessive pronouns, and are also used as pronominal prefixes with verbs. See below. The usual suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ni $p\bar{o}i$ $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{e}k$, thou a-feast gavest; nang- $m\bar{a}$ -la, with thee, etc.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:—hi or hi—hi, this; khi or khi—khi, that; chu or chu—chu, that. The personal pronoun of the third person may also be used as a demonstrative pronoun. Thus, hi rang, this horse; hi fā hi, this son; khi ting tāng-ā, that tree under, etc.

There are no Relative pronouns. They are expressed in the same way as in Lai by means of relative participles, formed by adding a suffix mi; thus, $v\bar{o}k\cdot\bar{a}i\cdot mi$ $\bar{a}i\cdot cha\cdot la$, pigs-by-eaten food-with, with the food which the pigs ate; $k\bar{a}\cdot ch\bar{o}an\cdot mi$ $\bar{a}\cdot s\bar{a}\cdot l\bar{o}$, me-by-done evil, what I have done is bad, I have sinned; $k\bar{e}i$ $k\bar{a}\cdot t\bar{o}ng\cdot ding\cdot mi$, that which I shall get. It will be seen that such relative participles may be used as substantives. The suffix mi is probably the demonstrative pronoun mi, that, which occurs in several cognate languages. It is perhaps identical with mi, man, which we find in $bu\cdot l\bar{o}\cdot mi$, servant. Relative clauses may also be formed by using the noun of agency or the root as a verbal noun; thus, $n\bar{a}\cdot f\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{u}$ $\bar{a}\cdot thil$ $\bar{a}\cdot ral\cdot khat\cdot t\bar{u}$, thy son his property wasted-who; $\bar{a}\cdot h\bar{o}ng$ $law\cdot \bar{a}$, his-coming-time-at, at the time when he came. Compare Relative participles, below.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:—āo-sā, ā-sā, or ā-tsā, who? āo, zei or zei-men, what? zei-tomē or zē-rūn-tla, why? zē-zā-sā, how many? zē-zān-sā, how far?

Thus, \bar{a} - $f\bar{a}$ - $ts\bar{a}$, whose-son? \bar{a} -shin- $s\bar{a}$, whom from? zei-men nan- $t\bar{i}$, what (do) yo do? etc.

The following Indefinite pronouns occur: -ang-khōm, anyone; zei-khōm, anything.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are :— $k\bar{a}$, I; kan, we: $n\bar{a}$, thou; nan, you: \bar{a} , he, she, it; an, they. The list of words gives some other forms; thus, $n\bar{e}$, thou; o, he; but the above set seems to be the regular one. The prefixes are occasionally dropped, but I have been unable to see any rule for their use.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus, zei-men nan ti, what do you do? \bar{a} -m \bar{a} -ni \bar{a} -sim, he said; khi ting $t\bar{a}$ ng- \bar{a} rang- $k\bar{e}$ ng $tl\bar{u}$ n- \bar{a} \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$ 0, that tree under horse-back on he-is-sitting; $t\bar{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}$ n $l\bar{u}$ n $l\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -toi, to-day way far I have walked. By inserting $t\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} , now, and $t\bar{u}$ an- \bar{a} , formerly, before the verb, a present definite and an imperfect is effected. Thus, $k\bar{e}$ i- $m\bar{a}$ -ni $t\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} $k\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{u}$ ak, I am beating; $k\bar{e}$ i- $m\bar{a}$ -ni $t\bar{u}$ an- \bar{a} $k\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{u}$ ak, I was beating.

The suffix of the *Past tenses* is ro; thus, $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ -kal-ro, I went. The prefix $k\bar{a}$ seems to denote the past in $k\bar{a}$ -sim, he said; $k\bar{a}$ -thai, he heard. In $k\bar{e}i$ $ch\bar{u}$ -tini si, I was, $ch\bar{u}$ -tini seems to mean 'then.' \bar{A} -kal-vin, he went, is probably a compound verb; compare Lai $v\bar{u}ng$, to set out, to start. Thus, \bar{a} -kal-vin, he set out to go.

The suffix of the Future is lai, as in Lai. Thus, $k\bar{e}i\text{-}m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ si-lai, I shall be; $k\bar{a}$ kallai, I will go; kan ai-lai, we will eat, let us eat. This form is also used in the specimen in the sentence $\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{o}\text{-}khop\text{-}lai$, he would fill his stomach. The intended meaning seems to be 'he was about filling his stomach.' The future is used to denote what possibly takes place in $k\bar{e}i$ \bar{a} shi-lai, probably for $k\bar{e}i$ $k\bar{a}$ shi-lai, I may be, that is to say: it may be that I am. Compare Compound verbs, below. The form ending in lai is also translated as an infinitive and as a past participle in the list; thus, $k\bar{a}$ $v\bar{u}ak\text{-}lai$, to beat; $\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}si\text{-}lai$, having beaten. $K\bar{a}$ kal-lai, I go, shows that the suffix lai is also used to denote the present tense. Compare the corresponding suffix lai in Aimol, Chiru, etc. $K\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}lai$ thus means 'my-beating-is,' and $\bar{a}\text{-}v\bar{u}ak\text{-}si\text{-}lai$, his-beating-will-be, it will be the case that he has struck.

The *Imperative mood* may be expressed by using the root alone; thus, $h\bar{o}ng$ -pu, bring; $v\bar{u}a$, strike; $h\bar{o}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ -pa, give me. The suffixes o or u, and ro, and the prefix va, are also used to form imperatives. Thus, ai-tar-o, cause him to wear; ruk-u, put on; $h\bar{o}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$ -mang-ro, make me; $h\bar{o}ng$ -ro, come; va- $p\bar{e}$, give; va- $l\bar{a}$, take; va-kal, go. Instead of ro we sometimes find ra, i.e., probably $r\hat{a}$; thus, va-ra, beat.

The root alone, without any suffix, is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus \bar{a} hong-law- \bar{a} , his-coming-time-at, at the time when he came; \bar{a} -tlung-lan- \bar{a} , his-comingbefore, before he arrived. In one place this form seems to be used as an infinitive of purpose; thus, $k\bar{a}$ -koi- $p\bar{a}$ hen kan- $p\bar{a}n$, my friends with our feasting for, in order that I might feast with my friends. $P\bar{a}n$ perhaps contains a suffix corresponding to Lushei ang. The usual suffix of the infinitive of purpose is, however, ding. Thus, \bar{a} -ding um- $l\bar{o}$, to eat there was not; $p\bar{e}k$ -ding, giving for, to spare; $n\bar{a}$ fa si-ding $k\bar{a}$ -do- $l\bar{o}$, thy son to-be I-worthy-not-am. It will be seen that this infinitive has also the force of a verbal noun. Still more this is the case in $k\bar{a}i$ $k\bar{a}$ -tong-ding-mi, mihi recipiendum quod, my share; nang-mā tin-din, thy share.

Participles. - The suffix in seems to form Adverbial participles; thus, dam-in, safe-

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being, alive. The list of words gives \bar{a} - $v\bar{u}ak$ -zia, beating, and kal-ro, gone. Relative participles are formed by adding mi. See Relative pronouns, above. The verb um, to be, is written umi in this form; thus, mi- $d\bar{a}ng$ - $t\bar{o}n$ \bar{a} umi, the-other-to being what, what the other had. Compare also Infinitive, above. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes \bar{a} , leh or la, and $n\bar{a}$. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ kal- \bar{a} , I going, I will go and; \bar{a} -ni then-run-la in sung- \bar{a} lu-du- $l\bar{o}$, he getting angry house into enter-would-not; \bar{a} $k\bar{o}$ -la \bar{a} $d\bar{a}i$, he calling he asked; \bar{a} -ni \bar{a} - $th\bar{o}k$ -leh \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ $t\bar{a}$ n- \bar{a} \bar{a} -kalvin, he he arising his father to he went; $m\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{a}ng$ $t\bar{o}n$ - \bar{a} umi \bar{a} -ni pi-ni-khi ka- $p\bar{e}k$ - $n\bar{a}$, tan- \bar{a} -tlai $l\bar{a}n$ - \bar{a} a-nak-se-mi \bar{a} -kal-vin, the other to being he two given-having, days-short after the-younger went, when the other one had given all what he had to the two, the younger one went.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix tu; thus, $k\bar{e}l$ -bul-tu, a shep-herd; τal -khat-tu, a waster.

Passive voice.—There is only one instance in the specimen: khi-khi ā-tlawu-leh kan-tōng-nōl, he having been lost was found again by us. The form does not differ from the active, but the subject is not distinguished by the suffix of the agent. The list of words gives the following forms: an hanga vūak, I am struck; en kā vūak-ro, I was struck; vūak kā dan-lai, I shall be struck. The last form seems to mean 'I shall get strokes.'

Compound verbs are freely used. The prefix hong denotes motion towards the speaker; na, motion from the speaker. Thus, hong-pu, bring here; na-fon (Lai in-fūn), to go and join. Causatives are formed by adding tar or ter (Lai thar); thus, ai-tar (Lai oi-thar), to cause to wear; kal-ter, to cause to go, to send. The verb du, to wish, is added to form Desideratives; thus, in sung-ā lu-du-lō, he did not wish to enter into the house. The suffix kho (Lai ko) denotes ability; thus, kēi-mā-ni kā vūak-kho-lai, I can beat, I may beat. Nol means 'again'; thus, kan-tōng-nōl, he was found again. Zek means 'much'; thus, kan ā-lom zek-lai, we will feast much, etc.

The Negative particle is $l\bar{o}$; thus, \bar{a} -du- $l\bar{o}$, he does not wish; \bar{a} -shi- $l\bar{o}$, it is not, no.

Adjectives may be used as verbs; thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{o}$, it is bad. Verbs seem also to be formed from other words by adding th, as in Lai. Thus, $r\bar{a}$ -lathpin, being far, from $l\bar{a}$, far; sim-thuth, to feast, compare Lai $saum\ th\bar{u}k$, a feast.

The usual **Order of words** seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. There are, however, many instances of a different order. But so long as we have not got a trustworthy text it would be unsafe to go into details.

[No. 13.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

BANJÖGÍ.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

pini um. Fā pini lagā ā-naksemi Manu pakhat lagā $f\bar{a}$ kāpā kāsim, Manu pa-khat lag-ā fā-pā pi-ni um. Fā pi-ni lag-ā ā-nak-se-mi \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ kā-sim. Man with sons two were. Sons two of young-the his-father-(to) said. ' Mopā, kāi kātong dingme hong kāpa.' Midangtonā umi āni pinekhi ' Mō-pā, $k\bar{e}i$ kā-tōng-ding-mi hong-ka-pa.' Mī-dāng-tōn-ā um-mi ā-ni pi-ni-khi 'O-father, I-receive-shall-what here-me-give.' The-other-to being he two-them kapēknā, tanatlailanah ānaksemi ätängleh afornolla midang pakhat ka-pēk-nā. tan-ā-tlai-lān-ā \bar{a} -nak-se-mi ā-tāng-leh ā-fōr-nōl-la mī-dāng pa-khat given-having. time-short-after young-the he-gathering-again all other khoah akalvin. akala tāmdau Khina hao. Ahao khupla aneh ānuāh khua ā-kal-vin. Khin-ā ā-kal-ā tām-dau ā-hao. A-hao-khup-la \bar{a} -niā-nūā village he-went. There he-going much-very he-wasted. He-wasted-all-when that after ani rāmā āpāmla Ānitonā ading umlo. joykum um-lo. Khi khoa ā-ni rām-ā \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}m$ -la \bar{a} -ding um-lō. Ā-ni-tōn ā zei-khōm um-lō. Khi khua famine-being that country-in eating-for was-not. Him-to anything was-not. That village-of mihen ānafon. Chumi nungchu vok nākā faisānā āncālter. Chumi nungchu mi-hen ā-na-jōn. Chu-mi-nung-chu vōk nāk-ā faisān-ā an-kal-ter. Chu-mi-nung-chu man-with he-joined. That-man-that fields-to pigs to-tend he-sent. That-man-that vokāimi āichala apokhoplai. Āngkhomni ading palo. Khikhi āmātilāh vôk-āi-mi āi-chā-la ā-pō-khop-lai. Āng-khōm-ni ā-ding pa-lō. Khi-khi ā-mā-til-ā food-with pigs-eaten he-belly-fill-would. Anyone eat-to gave-not. He himself-to āsin, 'Kāpā bulomitona atampe um, pekding, kāichu kābu chāmin sāng ā-sim, 'Kā-pā bu-lo-mi-tōn-ā sāng ā-tam-pi-um, pēk-ding, kēi-chu kā-bu-chām-in he-said, 'My father's servants-to bread much-is, give-to, 1 hunger-with kathelai. Kapatona kāichu kakallai, kāpātona kasimlai. 'Mopā, kā-thi-lai. Kā-pā-tōn-ā kēi-chu kā-kal-lai, kā-pā-tōn-ā ' Mō-pā kā-sim-lai, I-to-die-am-about. My-father-to T I-go-will 'O-father, my-father-to I-say-will, kochonmi asalo khujinne adulō, nangmātona nāng fā siding kadolou. kā-chōn-mi ā-sā-lo Khū-zin-ni ā-du-lō, si-ding nang-mā-tōn-ā nang fā kā-dō-lō, me-by-done evil-is, God he-likes-not. thee-to thy son be-to I-worthy-not-am, kaichu buloa hongkhāmangro." \mathbf{Ani} athokleh apā tona ākalvin. kēi-chu bu-lo-ā hōng-kā-mang-rō."' Ā-ni ā-thok-leh \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ tōn-ā ā-kal-vin. servants-among me-make." he-arising his-father to he-went. Atlünglanah ralathpin āfā āmu. āpāni Amukan āpāni adathnol. Ā-tlūng-lān-ā rā-lath-pin ā-fā ā-pā-ni \bar{a} - $m\bar{u}$. \bar{A} - $m\bar{u}$ -kangā-dath-nol. ā-pā-ni He-came-before far-very-being his-son his-father-by he-saw. His-seeing-after his-father he-pardened, aniki ateklah. afani loang gna aiboth. anikhi ānānim. Āfāni ā-ni-khi ā-tek-la, ā-fā-ni loang-ā ā-iboth, ā-ni-khi \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}$ -nim. Ā-fā-ni he-running, his-son-by he shoulder-on he-prostrated-himself. him he-kissed. His-son

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' Pā kachoānme āsālo, khujinme adulo, nangna apasim, tona · Pā ā-pā \bar{a} -sim, kā-chōān-mi ā-sā-lō, Khū-zin-ni \bar{a} -du- $l\bar{o}$. nang-nā-tōn-ā ' Father evil-is. God he-likes-not, his-father-to he-said, me-by-done thee-to kaichu nafa siding kadolou.' Afani bulola asim, 'Nangni nanpoān si-ding kā-dō-lō.' Ā-pā-ni bu-lo-la' Nang-ni kēi-chu nā-fā \bar{a} -sim, nan-poān I-worthy-not-am.' His-father I thy-son be-to servants-to he-said, ' You your-cloth hongpu, aitaro, āsāmi amakhi akudong pijung ruku, akeah fāikok ā-sā-mi hong-pu, ā-mā-khi ai-tar-o. ā-ku-dong-ā pi-zung ruk-ū, fāi-kok \bar{a} -ke- \bar{a} good-what bring, him to-wear-cause, his-hand-finger-on ring his-feet-on shoes put, ruku, kālu, kanai lai kānālom jeklāi, kaimā hiroangah, kapa atheleh kal-u, kan-mā kan-āi-lai, kan-ā-lom-zek-lai, ruk-u, hi-ro-ang-a, kā-fā ā-thi-leh put, come, we-eat-will we-feast-much-will, this-reason-for, my-son he-died-having anungnol, atlawuleh kantong nol.' Aniki ān-lomgnai. ā-nung-nol, ā-tlau-leh kan-tong-nol. An-ni-khi an-lom-ngai. he-revived-again, he-lost-being by-us-found-again-is.' they-merry-made. They

Tuwā afā opami faisan ah um. Āmāki in kaängäh ahōnglawa lām $T\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$ -mika-āng-ā ā-fā faisān-ā um. Ā-mā-khi ā-hōng-law-a lām Then elder-the fields-in He son was. honse his-coming-time-at dance near ādāng tomhow kathai. majur Amāni pakhat akolah ādāi, 'Joimen nanti?' ā-dāng tom-hau ka-thāi. Ā-mā-ni ma-zur pa-khat ā-ko-la ā-dai, 'Zei-men nan-ti?' music he-heard. and He servant one he-calling he-asked, 'What Majurni khikhi asim, 'Nā nāopa atlung, nāpāni asim thuth, hiro angah · Nā Ma-zur-ni khi-khi \bar{a} -sim, não-pã \bar{a} -tlung, nā-pā-ni ā-sim-thuth, hi-ro-āng-ā Servant he-said, 'Thy younger-brother he-came, he-feast-makes, this-reason-for, thy-father āmāki damin atlumla.' Ani thinrunla in sungna ludulo. Apa ā-mā-khi dam-in ā-tlūng-la.' A-ni thin-run-la insung-ā lu-du-lō. \bar{A} - $p\bar{a}$ he-came-back.' He angry-getting house into to-enter-wished-not. His-father lagna suah la alem. Amani 'Kaichu kombloujān āpāchu asim, narayan lang-ā suah-la \bar{a} -lem. Ā-mā-ni ā-pā-chu ā-sim, 'Kēi-chu kōm-blō-zān nā-rayan coming he-entreated. He his-father-(to) he-said, ʻΙ years-many thy-work kochuyan, kaichu nang thu kaal loh, chuvāngāh kakoi pahen känpän kā-chūān, kēi-chu nang-thu kā-al-lō. chu-vāng-ā kā-koi-pā-hen kan-pān I-did. I thy-word I-disobeyed-not. yet my-friends-with our-feasting-for kelpateh khom nang akaplo, nafachu alonu tona munkhat ten athil nang kēl-pā-tē $kh\bar{o}m$ a-kā-pa-lō, na-fā-chu ā-lo-nū ton-ā mun-khat-in ā-thil kid even thou me-gavest-not, thy-son-that harlots with together his-property aralkhattu ama . vāngā nangmani poi napek.' Āpāni āfā asin, ā-ral-khat-tu ā-mā vāng-ā nang-mā-ni poinā-pēk.' Ā-pā-ni ā-fā \bar{a} -sim. he-spent-entirely-who him for thou His-father his-son-(to) thou-givest.' he-said, 'Nang mala mun khatin kan-um. Kaima tona jajong umi ektin nangma ' Nang-mā-la mun-khat-in kan-um. $Kar{e}i$ - $mar{a}$ tōn-ā za-zōng um-mi ektin nang-mā ' Thee-with together we-are. Me whatever being ali thy tindin, nang kānmāhi kānpānlai konarem jeklai churoangyah nānā opā tin-din, nang kan-mā-hi kan-pān-lai kan-ā-rem-zek-lai chu-rō-āng-ā nā-nāo-pā property, thou us-with we-feast-will we-merry-make-much-will that-reason-for thy-younger-brother athi lāh anung nol, khikhi atlawuleh kantongnol.' ā-thi-la ā-nung-nöl, khi-khi ā-tlau-leh kan-tong-nol.' he-died-having he-revived-again, he-lost-being by-us-found-again-is.

PĀNKHŪ.

Pankhū is spoken in the Chakma and Boh Mong chiefs' circles in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The following are the numbers of speakers:—

Chakma		•						•			200
Boh Mong	•		•	•	•	•			•	•	300
								To	TAL		500

Further particulars and a list of authorities will be found under Banjögi.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Chittagong. They are full of mistakes, and I have not been able to correct them satisfactorily. In the list of words I have added the corresponding forms from Captain Lewin's list, within parentheses. The interlinear translation has been added by me, and is, in a few places, very uncertain. The notes on Pankhū grammar given below are founded on the forms occurring in the specimen and in the list of words. They are given with the utmost reserve.

The same inconsistency prevails with regard to consonants. Thus ch, chh, ts, sh, and s, are all interchangeable. We find for instance $ch\bar{u}ng$ and $chh\bar{u}ng$, in; $chh\bar{u}m$, $ts\bar{u}m$, and $s\bar{u}m$, property; chhia-lo and shea-lo, servant; $\bar{a}r$ -chi and $\bar{a}r$ -si, star; $ch\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$ and $s\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$, brother, etc. Chh is probably only another way of writing s, and this sound or sh is probably the sound intended. Ch and ph are interchanged in char- $n\bar{u}$ and phar- $n\bar{u}$, sister. J is probably pronounced z, and sometimes z is also written. Thus, jel and zel, to strike. The pronunciation of tl cannot be ascertained. It is occasionally interchanged with kl and lh; thus, tlang and $kl\bar{e}ng$, to come; tlang, to arrive. In Southern Chin according to Mr. Houghton, kl regularly corresponds to tl in Lushēi, and the occurrence of both in Pānkhū may be due to the double influence of the two former languages. The sound tl is also interchangeable with kl in Lai.

The writing of aspirated letters is also very inconsistent. The prefix pa in the first numerals is generally written pha; thus $pha-k\bar{a}t$, one. In the same way we find the male suffix $p\bar{a}$ written $ph\bar{a}$ in $n\bar{a}o-ph\bar{a}$, younger brother; but $\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$, elder brother. The sound is probably the same as that of the English p. In other words ph seems to be written for f; thus, $phar-n\bar{u}$, sister. In the same way k is interchanged with kh; t with th; n with nh; l with lh. Thus, $pha-ni-k\bar{a}$ and pha-ni-kha, two; en-to and $th\bar{u}$, to sit; nhi and ni, two; $\bar{a}n-l\bar{u}h$ and $in-lh\bar{a}$, far, etc.

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Concurrent consonants may be assimilated; thus, khāk-ka for khāt-kā, one.

K is silent in $p\bar{e}$ -ro, give; but \bar{a} - $p\bar{e}k$, he gave; kal-rok or kal-ro, go, etc.

Consonants are sometimes doubled between vowels; thus, $kapp\bar{a}$ or $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my father; $k\bar{a}nn\bar{u}ng$, back, i.e., $k\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}ng$, my back; $inn\bar{a}$, in the house, etc. The d in an-d-riem, he was friendly, seems to be euphonic.

Articles.—The numeral $kh\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$, one, is used as an indefinite article. Definiteness is marked by using demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses. Thus, mi-riem $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$, man one, a man; o- $m\bar{a}$ inn- \bar{a} , that house in, in the house; \bar{a} -kal- $n\bar{a}$ $r\bar{u}m$, he gone-having hill, the hill into which he had gone. In the list of words the suffix $k\bar{a}$ in $kh\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$ is once used alone as an indefinite article; thus $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$, a father.

Nouns.—Gender seems only to be apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes distinguished by using different words. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: mi-riem, man; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$, woman. The list of words gives $ph\bar{a}pp\bar{a}$, man; $ph\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, woman. $P\bar{a}$ is the common male suffix, and $n\bar{u}$ the corresponding female one. Thus mi- $p\bar{a}$, man and probably mi- $n\bar{u}$, woman; $\bar{u}i$ $p\bar{a}$, dog; $\bar{u}i$ $n\bar{u}$, bitch. Another set of suffixes is $ch\bar{a}l$, male, and $(\bar{a}$ -) $p\bar{u}i$, female. Thus, cho- $p\bar{e}$ $ch\bar{a}l$, bull; cho- $p\bar{e}$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{u}i$, cow: $s\bar{a}$ -ki $ch\bar{u}l$, a male deer; $s\bar{a}$ -ki $p\bar{u}i$, a female deer. Also tlang occurs as a male, and $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ as a female suffix; thus, $\bar{u}i$ tlang ngei-po, dogs; cho- $p\bar{e}$ $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$, a cow. It is also possible to add the noun the gender of which is indicated as an adjective to some word meaning 'male' or 'female being.' Thus, mi- $p\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}o$, man child, son; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}o$, woman child, daughter; $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}$ -kor, female-being one cow, a cow.

Number is only indicated when it does not appear from the context. Several words, all apparently meaning 'many', 'much', 'all' etc., are added in order to denote the plural. The following occur: e, jā, jong, kup, ngei, and po. E only occurs in vok-e, the pigs, and is perhaps no plural suffix. $J\bar{a}$ or $z\bar{a}$ means 'all' in Lushēi, Lai, and other languages. As a plural suffix it may be used alone, or together with other suffixes, e.g., ngei. It generally occurs in the form en- $j\bar{a}$ -en (compare Lushēi \bar{a} - $z\bar{a}$ -in, all), or as iā-kā. Jong correspond to Lushēi zong-zong, all, Lai zong, anything. Ngei occurs as a plural suffix in Kom, Hallam, Banjogi, etc., and means 'many', 'very'. Compare No. 122 in the list of words. In Pānkhū it is often combined with po or $p\hat{a}$, which corresponds to Siyin po, all. I cannot analyse the remaining plural suffix kup, which is used alone or together with ngei. The following instances will illustrate the use of these suffixes, an pā-jā lākān, from fathers, lit., their father-all from; nū-nāo jā-khā (i.e., jā-kā) lākā, daughter all from, from daughters; kel jā-en, goats; ā-chā mi en-jā-en, good man all, good men; mi-pha nū in-jā-en, of daughters, lit., human-beings female all; nū-nāo an in-jā-en, daughters, lit. daughter they all; ā-chā mi ngei en-jā kūng-un. good man very all to, to good men; ā-chā mi ngei jong lākān, good man many all from, from good men; cho-pē nū-nāo kup, goats; nū-nāo ngei kūng-un, to daughters; ā sheya-lo ngē, his servants ; an pā ngē tū kup-in, of fathers, lit. perhaps their father many (of) word many-in; ā-chā mi ngei po, good men, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is generally added to the subject of a transitive verb. The i in in is occasionally dropped after a preceding vowel. Thus, mi-riem khāk-kā-n nao-pā ni-kā ā-nāi, man one-by sons two he-got. The suffix in is however often omitted, especially in the list of words. The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing

noun; thus, $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$ $n\bar{a}o$, my father's brother's son, the son of my uncle. The list of words seems to contain a genitive suffix $t\bar{u}$; thus, $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}$, of a daughter. In the specimen $t\bar{u}$ occurs in the sense of 'word', 'command', and $n\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}o$ $kh\bar{a}k$ - $k\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}$ probably means 'the word of a daughter'. $P\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}o$ $t\bar{u}$, of a father, perhaps means 'a father's son's word'. It is not probable that $t\bar{u}$ is a real suffix of the genitive and it does not occur as such in any sentence. In $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{u}$ shea-lo $k\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ -bul-ta, my father's hired servants, the governed word has been repeated before the governing one by means of the pronoun $ch\bar{u}$. Other relations are denoted by means of postpositions such as \bar{a} , in, to; $ch\bar{u}ng$ -a, in; $ch\bar{u}ng$ -m, from; hin, from; in, in, among, with; $k\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , to; $k\bar{u}ng$ -hin, from; $k\bar{u}ng$ -un, to; $l\bar{a}k$ - $lam{a}(n)$, from; $m\bar{a}k$ - $lam{a}(n)$, in, with; nung- $lam{a}(n)$, heaven-to I sinned, seems to be a postposition, and perhaps corresponds to Lai hi, against.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify. In the former case postpositions and suffixes are added to the adjective and not to the qualified noun. Thus, rūm dāng-ā, country other to; ā-chā mi en-jā-en, good men.

The suffix of comparison is $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$ or $n\bar{a}k$ - \bar{a} $ch\bar{u}n$; thus, \bar{a} - $ch\bar{u}a$ - $p\bar{u}i$ - $p\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -char- $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$ an- $ch\bar{a}ng$, his brother his sister than tall, his brother is taller than his sister; o- $m\bar{a}$ (i.e., \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$) $n\bar{a}k$ - $\bar{a}n$ \bar{a} - $ch\bar{a}$, that than good, better. The superlative is formed in the same way, but nal is added to the adjective. Thus, $m\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}k$ - \bar{a} $ch\bar{u}n$ an- $ch\bar{u}n$ g nal, best.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The prefix pa (written pha) is a generic particle. It is not used when the numeral refers to money; thus, $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$ $ni\ n\bar{u}ng\text{-}un\ \bar{a}\text{-}d\bar{a}\text{-}li$, rupees two and a half. In speaking of human beings its use seems to be optional; thus, $n\bar{u}\text{-}n\bar{a}o\ kh\bar{a}k\text{-}k\bar{a}$, a daughter; $n\bar{u}\text{-}n\bar{a}o\ pa\text{-}ni\text{-}k\bar{a}$, two daughters, and so the list always gives $kh\bar{a}k\text{-}k\bar{a}$, one, but $pa\text{-}ni\text{-}k\bar{a}$, two. The suffix $k\bar{a}$ is probably the same as in $j\bar{a}\text{-}k\bar{a}$, many, all. Compare the suffix $k\bar{a}$ after the numerals in Hallam, etc. The numerals generally follow, but occasionally also precede, the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,-

kei-mā, kei, I. nang-ma, nang, thou. ā-mā, ā-ni, an, ni-ha, he. kei, kā, my. nā, ni, ne, thy. ā-ni, ā, his.

kei- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, mine. $nang-m\bar{a}$ - $(\bar{a}$ - $)t\bar{a}$, thine. ni- $t\bar{a}$, his.

Plural,-

kei-ni, we. nang-ni, you. an-ni, they. kei-mā-ni, our. nang-ni, your. an-ni, an, their.

To these must be added the forms kan, our, and nin, your, which occur among the pronominal prefixes; see Verbs, below. The forms $kei-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, mine, $nang-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, thine, and $ni-t\bar{a}$, his, are taken from Captain Lewin's list, where we also find $kei-m\bar{a}$, we, and $nang-m\bar{a}$, you. The list of words further has $kei-m\bar{a}$, mine; $nang-ni-t\bar{e}$, thine; and anni hoa, his. Ho is apparently a demonstrative pronoun; thus, $\bar{a}-ni$ $n\bar{a}o$ ho, his son that, $\bar{a}-ni$ ho thin thoy- \bar{a} $\bar{a}n$ -th \bar{a} -r $\bar{a}o$, he that tree under sitting-is. The ordinary case suffixes may be added to the personal pronouns. Thus, nang $t\bar{u}$, of thee (compare $n\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}$, thy word, in the specimen); kan in- $j\bar{a}$ -in, we; an jah (that is $j\bar{a}$) hon, they. 'Of me' is given as kei thong $ch\bar{u}$; compare $K\bar{o}m$ ka- $t\bar{o}ng$, of me.

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Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, this; mi hi, this, he; $n\bar{e}$, this; ho, that; $kh\bar{a}$, that; $m\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$, that; $ch\bar{u}$, that. The pronoun $ch\bar{u}$ is added to other words in order to emphasise; thus, kei- $ch\bar{u}$, I; nang-ni- $ch\bar{u}$, you; $k\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{u}$, my father; \bar{a} - $ts\bar{u}m$ $ch\bar{u}$, his property.

Relative pronouns.—Their place is supplied by the use of relative participles and the noun of agency. Thus, ā kal-nā rūm, he going country, the country into which he went; nā nāo chū-ho rūm dāng-ā ā-kal-mi, thy brother that country another-to went-who; nā nāo sūm mā-vai-tū, thy son fortune wasted-who.

Interrogative pronouns.—Ā-tū, who? mi-hi i, this what? i-ta, what? kā-jā-kā, how much? ko-jā-kā-en, how many? ko-ten-kā, how far? e-rang-ā, why? The interrogative particle mēn may be added. Thus, tū kūng mēn mē (i.e., nē) chēng, whom from did you buy it? e-mēn an ti, what are they doing? Compare i-ta nin ti, what do you do? Mēn and mān are apparently also used in the sense of 'even'; thus kēl-tē mēn, a kid even; nang kūng khā-mān, thee to that even, and also towards thee.

Indefinite pronouns.—The only instance seems to be e-ma na $t\bar{u}$ $k\bar{a}$ -a(l)-lo, any thy word I disobeyed not. E-mā is perhaps for e-man; compare Lai $z\bar{e}$ -man-lo, nothing.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:— $k\bar{a}$ or ke, I; kan, we: $n\bar{a}$, thou; nin, you: \bar{a} , he; an, they. These prefixes are often dropped, but this fact may be due to inadvertence. The list of words abounds in blunders. Thus, $k\bar{a}$ and \bar{a} are occasionally used as plural prefixes. In the second person the imperative is given instead of all other forms, and before the imperative the prefixes are regularly dropped. In No. 240 the prefix of the second person singular is given as $m\bar{e}$, probably a miswriting for $n\bar{e}$, etc.

The root alone is freely used to denote present and past tenses. Thus, $kei-m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}ng$, I am; \bar{a} $p\bar{e}k$, he gave; $k\bar{a}$ kal, I have gone; $kei-m\bar{a}(n)$ $k\bar{a}$ jel, I had struck.

The suffix of the Present definite is given as roa or $r\bar{a}o$, compare Lai leo. Thus, kei- $m\bar{a}(n)$ $k\bar{a}$ jel-roa, I am striking; an- $th\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}o$, he is sitting. The corresponding Imperfect seems to be formed with the suffix en; thus, kei- $m\bar{a}(n)$ $k\bar{a}$ jel-en, I was beating. This form is probably also a present definite, compare the corresponding suffix en in Rangkhöl. Another suffix of the imperfect is perhaps ti; thus, mi riem-ti, ei-ti, the men feasted, ate, feeded. Compare Participles below.

The suffixes of the Past tenses are $t\bar{a}$ and roa; thus, $k\bar{a}$ chūan- $t\bar{a}$, I did; \bar{a} ti- $t\bar{a}$, he said; kei-chū $k\bar{a}$ kal-roa, I went. The form in roa seems to be identical with the form for the present definite mentioned above.

The suffix of the *Future* is ti and the pronominal prefixes are inserted between the root and the suffix. Thus, $kei-m\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}-ti$, I shall be, lit. I 'be' I say; $zel-k\bar{a}-ti$, I shall strike; $kal-k\bar{a}-ti$, I will go. Compare the future in Hallam and other Old Kuki dialects. Another future suffix seems to be $\bar{a}t$; thus, $k\bar{a}-ti-\bar{a}t$, I shall die, I am dying; $kei-m\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}-jel-\bar{a}t$, me he strike will, I shall be struck.

Imperative.—According to the list of words the root alone, without any suffix, may be used as an imperative; thus, kal, go; $ch\bar{a}ng$, be. The usual suffixes are $r\bar{o}$ or $r\bar{a}$ and rang; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$, give; tleng-rang, bring. The form ending in rang seems to be connected with the future suffix $r\bar{a}ng$ in Rāngkhol, Hallām, etc. The suffix of the negative imperative is $m\bar{a}k$ -ro; thus, $n\bar{a}o$ -w-in $r\bar{u}at$ - $m\bar{a}k$ -ro, sons-among don't consider, lit. perhaps,

cease to consider me among your sons. Compare the Old Kuki negative $m\bar{a}k$, and Introduction, p. 19.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, $n\bar{a}o$ -w-in $r\bar{u}at$ $m\bar{a}k$ ro, sons among to consider cease; \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}o$ -klėng $ch\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , his brother's arriving at. The
suffix of the Infinitive of purpose seems to be ding; thus, $\bar{e}i$ -ding \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}i$ -lo, eating for he
got not, he got nothing to eat. This form is also used as a verbal noun. Other infinitive suffixes occur in the list of words; thus, $ch\bar{a}ng$ - $ch\bar{e}$ -la, to be; jel- $t\bar{a}$, to strike.
The former of these two is perhaps a conjunctive participle. The infinitive ending in $t\bar{a}$ perhaps occurs in $kh\bar{a}$ -ti- $t\bar{a}$ hong- $tl\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $ts\bar{a}$ -lom- \bar{e} , therefore to make merry is
good. Every word in this sentence is, however, uncertain.

Participles.—The list of words gives jel-ro, striking, and $ch\bar{a}ng$ -ti, being. Both these forms seem to belong to the present definite or imperfect. See above. The mere root may be considered as a Relative participle in clauses such as $\bar{e}i$ -ding \bar{a} -n $\bar{a}i$ -lo-h $\bar{u}n$ -in, to-eat he not-having time at, when he had nothing to eat. Compare Verbal noun above. The most usual suffix of this participle is $n\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} kal-n \bar{a} r $\bar{u}m$ -ch \bar{u} , he going country that, that country into which he went. As in Banjōgī, a suffix mi seems also to be used to form relative participles; thus, $k\bar{a}$ n \bar{a} o $\bar{a}n$ -tlao-mi k \bar{a} -tong, my son who was lost has been found. Conjunctive participles seem to be formed by means of the suffixes \bar{a} , $\bar{e}n$, and $l\bar{a}$. Thus, $k\bar{a}l$ -ro- \bar{a} , having gone; $ch\bar{a}ng$ -en- \bar{a} , having been; \bar{a} j $\bar{u}ar$ -pi- $\bar{e}n$, he wasted-all-having; jel-chea-in- $l\bar{a}$ poa-rang, well-struck-having bind him.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix $t\bar{u}$; thus, $l\hat{a}$ -lo- $t\bar{u}$, a cultivator; $k\bar{e}l$ - $k\bar{u}l$ - $t\bar{u}$, a goat tender, a shepherd; $m\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{a}i$ - $t\bar{u}$, one who wastes.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am struck' must be translated 'he struck me.' Thus, kei- $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -jel, I am struck; ton \bar{a} jel, then he struck, I was struck; kei- $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} jel- $\bar{a}t$, I shall be struck; $k\bar{a}$ tong, I found him, he has been found again.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words in order to modify the meaning. The prefix hong denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choy-rang, here-bring. Ni seems to denote direction from the speaker; thus, ni-rot, to consider, in nao-in ni-rot māk-ro, son as to consider cease, do not consider me as your son. Instead of ni-rot we find rūat (compare Lushēi ruat) in the corresponding passage, and ni is perhaps the pronominal prefix of the second person singular. The prefix mā seems to have a transitive force; thus, mā-tim, to kiss; mā-riem, to give a feast (compare mi riem-ti, they feasting). Van in van-tlang-hong-rang, come let us be merry, is perhaps connected with the emphasising prefix vūn in Lai. Causatives are formed by adding pūi, probably identical with Lushēi pui, to help, to assist; thus ā kal-pūi, he brought; zū nā in-pūi, beer thou causest to be drunk. Other words added in order to form compounds are pi, all; zo, all; zāi, to finish. In the list of words we find kei chāng cheng kā-ti, I may be, and kei khām jel kā or, I may strike. I cannot analyse these forms. In ā-thi-mo ā-dom-mo, he was dead and is alive, the two mo are perhaps a kind of correlatives.

The Negative particle is lo; thus \bar{a} - $n\bar{a}i$ -lo, he had not. A negative prefix m seems to occur in mhi, no, i.e., m'hi, it is not.

The regular Order of words seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb. There is, however, no consistency, and I have been unable to trace any rules.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

PĀNKHŪ.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

'Kei pha-ni-kā ā-nāi. Ā-nāo-w-in, nāo khāk-kān Mi-rryem · My The-younger (-said), two he-had. sons Man one ā-pēk. Ā-chān-āi tsūm chān-āi-mi pē-râ.' Ā-chān-āi ā-pān he-gave. His-share property his-father give.' His-share share-what-is Ā-tsūm-chū ā-jūar-pi-ēn chak-ding rūm-dāng-ā. ā-kal-pūi eat-to he-spent-all-having His-property-that he-brought hill-other-to. ā-nāi-Ei-ding ā-nāi-lo. Ā-kal-nā rūm-chū tlūm chāk-ding ā-nāi-lo. Eat-to he-hadhe-had-not. eat-to in (?) He-gone hill-that he-had-not. Vok-e kāl-ding mū-jū chāk-ding hâl. lāl kūng-ā · lo-hūn-in an Pigs tend-to wages (?) eat-to went. tochief not time-at heā-tong-lo. Ā-ngai-to-ā-tā, Vok-e kāl-mūn-nā phā-vāi mān 'Kā-pā-chū ā-pēk. even he-got-not. He-considered, 'My-father's tend-getting husks he-gave. kei-chū mi-hin chākkāmā-bul-ta amo-kam-chū an-ēi-zo-zāi-lo, shea-lo they-eat-all-finish-not, here hunger- \boldsymbol{I} hired labourers (5) "Pā, vān-i kal-kā-ti, kūng-ā kā-ti-āt. Kā-pā chām-in go-I-will, "Father, heaven-against toMy-father with I-die-shall. māk-ro, ne-chhia-lo-in om-kā-ti." kā-tūng-lo," ti-kā-ti, "nāo-win rūat be-I-will." thy-servant-as "son-as to-consider cease, I-sinned," say-I-will, 'Kā-nāo ā-tlang,' ā-mū, rāl-kātin kūng an-kal-roā. Ā-pā-in Ā-pā he-saw, 'My-son he-comes, distance-atHis-father he went. His-father · Pā, vān-i ā-pom ā-mā-tim. ā-ring-un an-driem ā-ti-tā, 'Father, heaven-against he-fell he-kissed. he-glad-was his-neck-on he-said, kā-tūng-lo, nāo-in ni-rot māk-ro.' kā-tūng-lo, nang kūng khā-mān vān-i heaven-against I-sinned, son-as to-consider cease. I-sinned, thee before also ā-ting-ā pē-rang,' ā-ti-tā. tleng-rang, ' Pūān tsā ā-sheya-lo-ngē, Ā-pān him-to give, he-said. clothgoodbring his-servants, His-father 'Van-tlang-hong-rang,' ā-bik. ā-ti. ā-tlēng-pek kūt-bik Pē-kok an-pē, Shoes he-gave, hand ring he-brought-gave he-put-on. 'Come-let-us-be-merry,' he-said, riem-ti ēi-ti bar-ti. Mi kā-tong.' an-tlāo-mi, 'Kā-nāo Men feasting eating feeding (were). I-found. he-lost-who, ' My-son

Ā-honglo-shiā kal. kleng-chung-a ā-ū Ā-nāo He-homehis-elder-son fields-in went. coming-in His-younger-son ' E-men an-ti?' ā-ti-tā. ā-thai-tā. hlung-ta, khoang nin dar mrit they-do?' he-said. . What he-heard. andgong sound drumcame,

Shea-lo khāk-kā ā-kāo, 'I-ta nin-ti?' 'Nā-nāo-phā ā-tlang, Servant one he-called, 'What you-do?' $`Thy \hbox{-} younger-brother$ he came. nā-pā-in ā-tlung ā-mā-riem-tā, an-in. Dum-kan āthy-father he-happy-became he-gave-feast, beer they-drink. Safehetleng.' Ā-ū-pā chū ā-ning-anjhēr. Ā-pān, 'E-rang-ā came.' His-elder-son that he-got-angry. · Why His-father, ā-ti-tā, in-chung-mi ā-ni-anjhēr? ā-chūak. Ā-ū-pān, 'len-kā nang he-angry?' he-said, house-from he-came-out. The-elder, 'Long-time thychūan kā-chūan-tā, e-mā nā-tū kā-a (1)-lo, vēi-kē-mān kēl-tē I-did, work thy-word any I-disobeyed-not, time-any kid" Ne-chhien men, ne-rūal nin sā-rang" ni-ti-lo. Nā-nāo even, "Thy-friends thy-companions with eat," thou-saidst-not. Thy-younger-son sūm mā-vāi-tū hong-tlang-ta, zū nā-in-pūi,' 'Kā-nāo property wasted-who home-came, beer thou-to-drink-causest.' ' My-son nang-chū kom-khoa-in nā-om kā-kūng-ā. Nā-nāo-chū ho rūm. thou always thou-art me-with. Thy-younger-brother-thatthat hilldang-a ā-kal-mi ā-thi-mo ā-dom-mo. Khā-ti-tā hong-tlung-ta, other-to he-went-who he-died he-alive is. Therefore here-merry-to-be ā-tsā-lom-ē. In-chhung chhum chū nang-mā-ātā.' it-good-happy-is. House-in 1 roperty thatthine.'

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STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN THE LANGUAGES

	Engl	ish.		Lai (H	aka).			Shonshe of Ganga	w (F.	H. Eliott).	Lushëi (D	ulien).		
1.	One			Pö-kat .				Ma-kat .			Pa-khat .			
2.	Two			Pö-nī, pö-nhit				Ma-nhi .			Pa-nhih .			
3.	Three			Pö-thūm				Ma-tōn .			Pa-thum			
4.	Four			Pö-li .				Ma-li .			Pa-li .			
5.	Five			Pö-nga .				Ma-ngā .			Pa-ngā .			
6.	Six			Pö-rük .				Ma-rūk .			Pa-ruk .			
7.	Seven	•		Pö-sé-ri .				Ma-seri .	•		Pa-sarih .			
8.	Eight		•	Pö-rye <u>th</u>				Ma-rit .			Pa-riat .			
9.	Nine			Pö-kwa .				Ma-ko .			Pa-kuā .			
10.	Ten ·			Pö-ra .				Ma-rā .			Shom .			
11.	Twenty			Pö-kūl				Ma-kul .			Shom-nhih			
12.	Fifty			Sâm-nga				Sâm ngã			Shom-ngā			
13.	Hundred			Za-kat, chuĕ-k	at, or	shwē-k	at	Ya kat .			Zā .			
14.	ı .			Kē-ma .				Ke-mā .			Kei-mā, kā			
15.	Of me			Kē-ma, kā, or	k•						Ditto		÷	
16.	Mine			Kē-ma-sa, or l	cē-ma	-i					Kei-mā-tā, kā-	tā		
17.	We			Kan-ni .				Ke-mā lai			Kei-mā-nī, kan			
18.	Of us			Kan-ni .							Ditto			
19.	Our			Kan-ni .							Kei-mā-nī, kan			
20.	Thou			Nang-ma				Nang-mā			Nang-mā, i			
21.	Of thee			Nang-ma, or n	а						Ditto			
22.	Thine			Nang-ma-sa, o	r nang	g-ma-i					Nang-mā-tā, i-	tā		
23.	You			Nan-ni .				Nang-mā			Nang-mā-nī, in			
24.	Of you			Nan-ni .				•			Ditto			

OF THE CENTRAL CHIN SUB-GROUP.

Banjögī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pänkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Pa-khat	Pha-kāt (or kat-kā)	, 1. One.
Pi-ni (or pa-nhi) .	Pha-nhi (or pa-nhi)	2. Two.
Pa-tum	Pha-tūm (or tūm-kāt) .	3. Three.
Pi-li (or pa-li)	Pha-li (or un-li)	4. Four.
Pa-ngā	Ra-ngā	5. Five.
Pa-rűk	Rāk	6. Six.
Pa-sā-ri	Sā-ri (or sarrik)	7. Seven.
Pa-reyet (or pa-riek)	Riet (or riek)	8. Eight.
Pa-koa	Kūwa (or kwa)	9. Nine.
Pa-rā (or tsom)	Tsom	10. Ten.
Kül (or tsom-ni)	Tsom-nhī	11. Twenty.
Tsom-ngā	Tsom-ngā	12. Fifty.
Zā	Zāh (or ra-jā)	13. Hundred.
Kei-mā	Kei-mā	14. I.
Kei-mā	Kei tlong chū	15. Of me.
Kei-mā (<i>or</i> kei-mā-tā)	Kei-mā (or kei-mā-tā) .	16. Mine.
Kan-mā	Kei-ni chū	17. We.
Kan-mā	Kei tū chū	18. Of us.
Kan-mā	Kei-mā-ni	19. Our.
Nang-mā	Nang (or nang-mā)	20. Thou.
Nangi	Nang tū	21. Of thee.
Nangi (or nang-mā-tā)	Nang ni tē (or nang-mā-tā)	22. Thine.
Nan-ma	Nang-ni chū	23. You.
Nang-ni-chu	Nang-ni ngēi tū	24. Of you.

Engl	ish.				Lai (I	Iaka).			Shoushe of	Gang	w (F.	H. Elio	tt).	Lu	shëi (I	ulien).		
25. Your		•		Nan-nī			•							Nang-mā	-ni-tā			
26. He	•		•	Amma					Ammā	•	•	•		Ā-mā, ā				
27. Of him	٠			Amma,	an, or	a								Ditto				
28. Џів				Amma-s	a, or	amma-	ī			•••				Ā-mā-tā				
29. They				Anni		.•			Ammā l	ai				An-mā-ni	i, an			
30. Of them				Anni										Ditto				
31. Their				Anni										An-mā-ni	-tā			•
32. Hand				Kūt										Kut				
33. Foot				Kē					A (sic)					Kephah				
34. Nose				Nar					A-nga					Nhār				
35. Eye				Myit					Myit					Mit				
36. Mouth				Kā					Kā.					Kā				
37. Tooth				На					Hā	•				Hā				
38. Ear				Nā					Nhā					Beng				
39. Hair .				Sūm					Süm					Sham				
40. Head	•	•	•	Lū					Lū					Lū				
	•	•	•				•	•	Laik					Lei				•
41. Tongue	•	•	•	Lē .		•	•	•			•	·	٠		•	•	•	•
42. Belly	•	•	•	Pâ.		•	•	•	På	•	•	٠	•	Pum	•	•	•	٠
43. Back	•	٠		Kēng		٠	٠			••••				Nhung-z	ang		•	•
44. Iron	•	•		Tirh	i.	•			Tir	•	•		•	Thir		•		
45. Gold				Shwi			•		Shwi	٠		•	•	Rangkāc	hak	•		•
46. Silver				Ngũn	•				På					Tangkā				
47. Father	ı			А-ра			•		А-ра	•		•		Pā	•	٠	٠	٠
48. Mother				A-nū					Ka-nū		•	٠		Nū	•	•	•	,
49. Brother				A ta (ŭ	i, elder er bro	r broth	er; n	во,	Kª-ű (e	lder)	•	٠		Ū, nao		•	•	٠
50. Sister				A farr					A-farr	,				Farnū				

Banjēgi (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pänkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
	Nang-ni chū	25. Your.
Ā-mā	Ni ha (or am-ma)	26. Не.
Ā-ni thủ (lit. his word) .	Ānni ngāi tū	27. Of him.
Hi hi (?)	Ānni hoa (or ni-ta)	28. His.
Khi ki (?)	Ānjah hon	29. They.
Hi-hi mo (?)	Ānjah tū in	30. Of them.
Hi hi mo (?)	Ānni hon	31. Their.
Kā-bān (or kūt)	Kūt (or kūt-par)	32. Hand.
Kā-kē	Phei (or poi-phak)	33. Foot.
Kā-nār	Nār	34. Nose.
Kē-mit	Mit	35. Eye.
Kā-kā (or ma-kar) .	Mel (or makar)	36. Mouth.
Kā-hā	на	37. Tooth.
Kā-na-ko (or na)	Nā	38. Ear.
Kā-tsām	Chām (or tsūm)	39. Hair.
Lū	Lū	40. Head.
Lēi · · ·	Lei	41. Tongue.
Po	Dil	42. Belly.
Kēin	Kā-nūng	43. Back.
Thir	Thir	44. Iron.
Ngūn	Ngān	45. Gold.
Tān-kā	Tānkā	46. Silver.
Ā-pā · · ·	Pā	47. Father.
Kā-nū	Nū	48. Mother.
Kā-nā (? Nāo-pā, younger brother; ū-pā, elder brother, in the specimen).	Chāppūi	49. Brother.
Kā-tsar-nū	Phar-nū	50. Sister.

En	glish.				La	i (Haka).		Shonshe	of Ga	ingaw (F. H. 1	Eliott).	Lushē	i (Dul	ien).	
51. Man				Mī pa					. Mi					Мі-ра				
52. Woman				Mī nū					· Sa-nū					Mhei-c	hhia			
53. Wife				Nũ pĩ				ंद	. Na-pi	٠.				Nū-pu	i .			
54. Child				Fa.					· Huk-të					Nao-pa	ng			
55. Son .				Fa pa	•				A-pwa					Fā-pā				
56. Daughter	٠.			Fa nū	•				Fu-nū					Fā-nū				
57. Slave		•		Shāļ					Sāl					Boi				
8. Cultivator	r			Lo-klo- <u>t</u>	<u>h</u> ā				Lai-tōn	٠.				Lō-shia	m-tũ			
59. Shepherd											····			Beram-	veng-	tāl		
60. God				Kō-zīn					K'yaing					Pā-thia	n^2			
31. Devil						. .			T'seik					Huai ²				
2. Sun				Nī		÷			Ni					Ni				
3. Moon	·			Kla pa					Tha-pā					Thlā				
4. Star				Ar-fi					A-fi					Arshī				
5. Fire				Mē					A-nhau	ıg				Mei				
6. Water		٠		<u>Th</u> i					Ti .					Tui				
7. House				Inn		·			Inn .					In				
8. Horse				Rang					Rang				,	Sākor				
9. Cow				Zâ-pī		•			Lâ		٠.	•		Sebâng				•
). Dog				Ūi-sō					Oui					Ui				
L. Cat .	•			Si-zâ					Miauk		. •			Zâte				
2. Cock				Ar-lhi					Arr-lhi-p	a.				Ar-pā				
. Duck		• .		Som-pē										Varak				
. Ass .			. 1	La.										Sā-bengt	ung			
. Camel												,e		Sā-nghâr	g-sei	3		
. Bird			. 4	A vār		•			Pa-wa				.	Sā-vā				
Go			. F	Σallo .					Kª-shē					Kal				

¹ There are no indigenous sheep in the Lushai Hills. Beram is a corruption from Bengali; veng·tū, a watcher.

² Pā-thian is generally considered to be the creator and general manager of the universe, but the Lushëis believe in many spirits, khuā-jungle devils; Tui-huai, water devils, etc. They have no idea of a single devil.

³ There are no camels in Lushai land. Sā, animal, nghâng, neck, sei, long.

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Banjögī (Chi Trac	ttagong Hill ts).		Pāukhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Mi-nūng .			Phāppā (or mi-rhiem)	. 51. Man.
Kā-phā-nū			Phā-nū	. 52. Woman.
Kā-nū-pi			Kā-nū-pūi	. 53. Wife.
Patsā (probab	ly borrowed	9).	Não	. 54. Child.
Kā-fā-pā			Mi-pā nāo	. 55. Son.
Kā-fā-nū			Nū-nā nāo	. 56. Daughter.
Toh-oh .			In-ām	. 57. Slave.
Paisenanon (?)			Lâ-lo-tu	. 58. Cultivator.
Kēl-bul-tū			Kel-kāl-tu	. 59. Shepherd.
Pozing (proba	bly Kozing)		Ko-zin	. 60. God.
Kātairoh			Chom	. 61. Devil.
Ni			Ni	. 62. Sun.
Tlā-pā .			Lāh (or tlā)	. 63. Moon.
Ar-fi .			Ār-chi (or ar-si) .	. 64. Star.
Mai .			Mēi (or māi)	. 65. Fire.
Ti (or tāi)			Tũi	66. Water.
In			In	67. House.
Rang			Sā-kor	. 68. Horse.
Sopē .			Châ-pē	69. Cow.
Ūi.			Ūi	70. Dog.
Chiza (or lâ-ch	i) .		Zo-tē (or lâ-chī)	71. Cat.
Arkong .			Ār-kong	72. Cock.
Vārāk .			Vārāk	73. Duck.
Rang .				74. Ass.
			·	75. Camel.
Vā .			Vā (or sa-va)	. 76. Bird.
Kal .			Kal(-rōk) · ·	. 77. Go.

English.			Lai (I	Iaka).			Shonshe o	f Gan	gaw (F	. H. Eliot	». 	Lushëi (Dulien).	
78. Eat			Ē								Ei .				
79. Sit			Thū ko .				Ka-tu				. Thū			•	٠.
80. Come .			Hūn <u>th</u> wa				Lai-wa				. Lö-ka	١.			
81. Beat .			Vēļ-lo .				Ka-vel	,			. Vua,	√ēl.			
82. Stand .			Dîr-ko .			,	Ka-to				. Ding	•			
83. Dia			Thi-lo .				Ka-si				. Thi	•			
84. Give .			Vūn-pē .								Pē				
85. Run			Klīk-lo .				K®-fun				· Tlān				
86. Up			Съб .								Chung	g-lam, o	r chh	ou	
87. Near .			Nai .		•		A-ngai				. Kiang			•	
88. Down .			Klang-lē-yā								Chbul	c, or thl	ang-l	am	
89. Far			A-lhāt .				A-lhat			•	. Lhā				
90. Before .			Mhai-lē .	•			K*-mba	i			. Mhā			٠	
91. Behind .			Nhū-lē-yā	D	,		K*-nhu				Nhun	g .			
92. Who			A-ho .								Tu-ng	е.			
93. What .			Zē-da .		•			•••			E-nge			•	
94. Why .			Zē-za-da	•					·••		E-nga	-tan-nge			
95. And .			Lē								Leh			•	•
96. But			Chūn mâ								Nī-ma	h-she-la	١.	• .	
97. If	. •		A-chūn .								Chuar	٠.			
98. Yes			A-shi .								Ā-nī,	or â	,		
99. No			A-shi-lo .								Ni-lo				
100. Alas .									•••						
101. A father .			Pa pö-kat		•			•••			Pā pa	-khat			
102. Of a father			Pa pö-kat						•••		Di	tto			
103. To a father		•	Pa pö-kat hē								Pā pa	-khat ni	nenā		
104. From a fathe	r.		Pa pö-kat-in			,			.	15	Pā pa	-khat n	henā-	tā.	

Banjögi (Chitte Tracts			Pänkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).		English.
Ai			Chā-rō(k)		78. Eat.
Γou .	(*)		Thū-râ (or en-tō-rōk)		79. Sit.
Hong-ro .			Hong-râ (or hōn-rōk)		80. Come.
Va-rå (or vok-r	o) .		Zel-râ		81. Beat.
Dir .			Ding-râ		82. Stand.
Thi-rā .			Thi-râ		83. Die.
Pē			Pē-rā (or pē-rōk) .	٠	84. Give.
Tek-rå (or tek-c	chem-rok)		Klān-râ (or pū-rōk) .		85. Run.
Ashung .			Chung-lām-ā		86. Up.
Ā-nāi .			Ānnāi		87. Near.
Ā-niem .			Ānnāi-ā		88. Down.
Ā-lā .			Ān-lah (or in-lhā) .		89. Far.
Tūana .			Māk-ti kāng-ā .		90. Before.
Nűa .			Nüng-ti käng-ä	•	91. Behind.
Āosa (or O-lha-	si) .		Ā-tu (or tū-tō-ā) .		92. Who.
Zei			Mi-hi-i		93. What.
Jei-tomē (or zē-	rtin-tla)		I-rang-ā		94. Why.
Alāichērāh (or	adang)		Műnűng hin (or adang)		95. And.
Chūvānā			Nābaikā		96. But.
Chū-chūn			I-lo · · ·		97. If.
Ā-shi (or â)			â		98. Yes.
Ā-shi-lo .			Mhi mhi (or ā-chan-lō)		99. No.
ŭ			ŭ		100. Alas.
Kā-pā pa-khat			Pā kā		101. A father.
Pa khat pā	•		Pā kā nāo tū (?)		102. Of a father.
Pa-khat pā	• •	•	An pā kūng-ā .		103. To a father.
Kā-pā pa-khat	chinā.		Anni pā kūng-hin .		104. From a father.

	English.		Lai (Hal	ka).		Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott)	Lushëi (Dulien).
105.	Two fathers		Pa pö-nī .				Pā pa-nhih
106.	Fathers .		Parwēļ				Pā-tē
107.	Of fathers		Pa-rwēļ				Ditto
108.	To fathers		Pa rwēļ hē .				Pā-tē nhenā
109.	From fathers		Pa rwel-in .				Pā-tē nhenā-tā
110.	A daughter		Fa-nű pö-kat .				Få-nü pa-khat
111.	Of a daughter		Fa-nű pö-kat .				Ditto
112.	To a daughter		Fa-nű pö-kat hé	٠			Fā-nū pa-khat nhenā
113.	From a daughter	٠.	Fa-nū pö-kat-in		٠		Fā-nū pa-khat nhenā-tā .
114.	Two daughters		Fa-nû pö-nî .			<u></u>	Fā-nū pa-nhih
115.	Daughters		Fa-nű rwěļ .				Fā-nū-tē
116.	Of daughters		Fa-nū rwēļ .				Ditto
117.	To daughters		Fa-nū rwēļ hē .				Fā-nū-tē nhenā
118.	From daughters		Fa-nű rwēļ-in .				Fā-nū-tē nhenā-tā
119.	A good man .		Mi pa ta .			·····	Mi thā pa-khat
120.	Of a good man .		Mī pa ta .				Ditto
121.	To a good man		Mi pa ta hē .				Mī thā pa-khat nhenā .
122.	From a good man	٠.	Mi pa ta-in .			******	Mī ṭhā pa-khat nhenā-tā .
123.	Two good men .		Mī pa ta pō-nī.				Mī ṭhā pa-nhih
124.	Good men .		Mī pa ta rwēļ .				Mī ṭhā tē
125.	Of good men		Mî pa ta rwēļ .	•			Ditto
126.	To good men .		Mī pa ta rwēl hē				Mi tha të nhena
127.	From good men .		Mī pa ta rwēl in				Mī ṭhā tē nhenā-tā
128.	A good woman .		Mī-nū ta .			S*-nu hi a-ta-ko	Mheichhe' ṭhā pa-khat .
129	A bad boy .		Pa <u>th</u> ē a-ta-lo .			Mi shē (a bad man)	Nao-pang ṭhā-lo pa-khat .
130.	Good women .	-	Mî nû ta rwêļ .				Mheichhe' thá të
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Kā-pā pi-ni	Pā pha-ni-kā	105. Two fathers.			
	An pā-ngē-pâ-in				
Kā-pā tām ngāi		106. Fathers.			
	An pā-ngē tū kup in .	107. Of fathers.			
Kā-pā tām ngāi	An pā-ngē-po kūng-un .	108. To fathers.			
Kā-pā ānem ngāi	An pā jā lākān	109. From fathers.			
Fā-nū pa-khat	Nū-nāo khāk-kā	110. A daughter.			
Fā-nū pa-khat	Nū-nāo khāk-kā tū	111. Of a daughter.			
Fā-nū pa-khat chinā.	Nű-não khāk-kā kũng-un .	112. To a daughter.			
Fā-nū pa-khat chinā.	Nū-nāo-in	113. From a daughter.	7		
Fā-nū pi-ni	Nū-nāo pha-ni-kā	114. Two daughters.			
a Fā-nū tām ngāi	Nū-nāo an in-jā-en	115. Daughters.		v	
Fā-nū tām ngāi an-ni-cho .	Mi-pha nữ in-jā-en	116. Of daughters.			
Fā-nū tām ngāi chinā .	Nū-nāo ngei kūng-un .	117. To daughters.			
Fā-nū tām ngāi chinā .	Nū-nāo jā-khā lākā	118. From daughters.			
Mi sā-tāk	Khāk-kā mi chā	119. A good man.			
Mi sā-tāk	Khāk-kā mi chā tū	120. Of a good man.			
Mi sā-tāk chinā	Khāk-kā mi chā kūng-un .	121. To a good man.			
Mi sā pa-khat ni	Mi chā-ngei khāk-kā kūng- un.	122. From a good man.			
Mi sā pi-ni	Ā-chā mi pha-ni-kha.	123. Two good men.			
Mi sā tām	Ā-chā mi en-jā-en	124. Good men.			
Mi sā ā-tām-mi chinā .	Ā-chā mi ngei po tū-in .	125. Of good men.			
Ditto .	Ā-chā mi ngei en-jā kūng- un.	126. To good men.			
Ditto .	Ā-chā mi ngei jong lākān .	127. From good men.	٠		
Nū-nā pa-khat ā-sā	Khāk-kā nữ ā-chā	128. A good woman.			
Nāk-shwey ā-sā-lo pa-khat .		7. ·			
Nű-nā ā-sā	KIRA-KA CHU R-CHR-KH60-10	130. Good women.			

Engli	ish.		Lai (Haka	a).		Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
131. A bad girl	ı		Nū <u>th</u> ē a-ta-lo				Mheichhe' nao-pang thā-lo pa-khat.
132. Good		•	A-ta	•		A-ta-ko	Ţhā
133. Better			A-ta dēyū .			A-ta-ōn	Ţhā zâk
134. Best			A-ta-byik .	•		A-ta-byik	Ţhā ber
135. High			A-shan			A-sang	Shāng
136. Higher			A-shan dēyū .				Shāng tak
137. Highest			A-shan-byik .				Shāng ēm ēm
138. A horse			Rang thūm .			•••••	Sā-kor pa-khat
139. A mare			Rang pi				Sā-kor-nū pa-khat
140. Horses			Rang thum rwel			<u></u>	Sā-kor-tē
141. Marcs			Rang pī rwēļ .				Sā-kor-nū-tē
142. A bull			Zâ <u>th</u> ũm .			Thā-tōm	Se-bâng-pā pa-khat
143. A cow		,	Zâ pī			Lâ	Se-bâng-nũ pa-khat
144. Bulls			Zâ <u>th</u> ũm rwēļ .				Se-bâng-pā-tē
145. Cows			Zâ pī rwēļ .	•			Se-bâng-nū-tē
146. A dog			Ūi-sō <u>th</u> ām .		٠.		Ui pa-khat
147. A bitch			Ŭi-sō pi				Ui-nū pa-khat
148. Dogs			Ū̃i-sō <u>th</u> ūm rwėļ				Ui-tē
149. Bitches			Uī-sō pī rwēļ .				Ui-nū-tē
150. A he-goat			Mē-hē <u>th</u> ūm .				Kel-pā pa-khat
151. A female	goat		Mē-hē pī .			:	Kel-nű pa-khat
152. Goats			Mē-hē rwēļ .				Kel-tē
153. A male de	er		Sūk-kī sal .				Sā-zuk-pā pa-khat
154. A female of	deer		Sük-ki pi .				Sā-zuk-nū pa-khat
155. Deer			Sük-ki rwēļ .		•		Sā-zuk
156. I am			Kē-ma ka-shī .				Kei-mā ka-nī
157. Thou art			Nang-ma na-shī			<u>:</u>	Nang-mā i-nī

Banjögī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Ā-sā-lo-mi nū-nā	Nū-nāo ā-chā-lō	131. A bad girl.
Ā-sā	Ā-chā	132. Good.
Ā-sā ngāi	Ā-mā nākān ā-chā	133. Better.
Ā-sā ngāi	Mā nākā chūn āchā-nal .	134. Best.
Ā-shyān	Anchang	135. High.
Ā-shyān ngāi	Mā nāka chūn anchāng .	136. Higher.
Ā-shyān khūn .	Mā nāka chún anchāng-nal	137. Highest.
Rang pa-khat	Sā-kor khāk-kā	138. A horse.
Rang nū-nā pa-khat .	Nūnāo khāk-kā sā-kor .	139. A mare.
Rang ā-tām ngāi .	Sā-kor en-jā-en	140. Horses.
Rang nū-nā ā-tām ngāi	Nū-nāo sā-kor en-jā-en .	141. Mares.
So-pē chāl pa-khat .	Cho-pē chāl	142. A bull.
So-pë nu-na pa-khat.	Cho-pē ā-pūi	143. A cow.
So-pē chāl tām .	En-ja-in ā-chāl	144. Bulls.
So-pē nū-nā tām	Cho-pē nū-nāo kup	145. Cows.
Üi pa-khat	Űi pā khāk-kā	146. A dog.
Üi nü-nä pa-khat	Ŭi nū khāk-kā	147. A bitch.
Ŭi tām ngāi	Ūi tlang ngei po	148. Dogs.
Ūi nū-nā tām ngāi .	Ŭi nŭ ngei po	149. Bitches.
Kēl chāl pa-khat .	Kel chāl	150. A he-goat.
Kēl nú-nā pa-khat .	Kel nű	151. A female goat.
Kēl tām	Kel jä-en	152. Goats.
Sikki chāl pa-khat .	Sā-ki chāl	153. A male deer.
Sikki nū-nā pa-khat .	Sā-ki pūi	154. A female deer.
Sikki tām	Sā-ki ngei po	155. Deer.
Kei-mā [kā-shī]	Kei-mā kā chāng	156. I am.
Nang [nā-shi]	Nang chang-ro	157. Thou art.

	Englis	sh.		Lai (Haka).		Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	· Ĺu	shēi (Dulier	i).	
158.	He is			Amma a-shi .				Ā-mā a-nī				
159.	We are		•	Kan-nī kan-shī		•		Kei-mā-ni	kan	ı-nī	•	
160.	You are			Nan-ni nan-shi				Nang-mā-	nī in	ı-ni		
161.	They are			An-nī an-shī .				An-mā-nī	an-n	ī		
162.	I was			K-um-sang	•			Ka-ni	¢			
163.	Thou wast		,	N°-ūm-sang .			 .	I-ni				
164.	He was			A-ūm-sang .	.`			A-ni	•	•		
165.	We were			Kan-um-sang .				Kan-ni				
166.	You were			Nan-ūm-sang .			·	In-ni .				
167.	They were			An-um-sang .				An-ni .				
168.	Be .			Shī-ko-shē .			·	Om, or ni	ı			
169.	To be			Shī				Om, ni				
170.	Being		•	Shī-ling-mang .				Om-in .	6			
171.	Having bee	en		Shī-nāk				Nī-tā, om	-ā			
172.	I may be			Ka-shī-dik .				Ka-om-the	ei-e,	ka-ni	-thei-	е.
173.	I shall be			Kª-shī-lai .				Ka-om-an	g-e,	ka-ni	-ang-e	в.
174.	I should be	9						Ka-om-the	ei-e,	ka-ni	thei-	е.
175.	Beat			Vēļ-lo				Vua, vēl				
176.	To beat			Vēļ			······	Vēl-tūr .				
177.	Beating			Vēļ-ling-mang				Vēl-mēk				
178.	Having bea	aten		Vēl-nāk			······	Vēl-tā, vē	l-ā			
179.	I beat			Ka-vēļ (or kē-ma-	nē k³-vēļ)		Ka-vēl .				,
180. '	Thou beates	st		Na-vēļ				I-vēl				
181. 1	He beats .	•		A-vēļ		-		A-vēl .				
182.	We beat .		• .	Kan-vēļ .				Kan-vēl .				
183.	You beat .			Nan-vēļ			·	In-vēl .				
84. !	They beat			An-vēļ				An-vēl .				

¹ Om is 'to exist,' thus, khū-tā sā-kor α-om, down there the horse he is ; but khū khū sā-kor α-nī, that thing a horse it is. K.-C. G.—172

Banjögī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Päukhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	. English.
Anni [ā-ni ā-shi]	Mi-hi chāng	158. He is.
Kan-ni [kan shi]	Kei-mā kā chāng	159. We are.
Nang-ni [nan shi]	Nang chang-ro	160. You are.
Anni mroi [?]	Ān-ni ā chāng	161. They are.
Kei chū-tini si	Kei-mā kā om	162. I was.
Nang chū-tini si .		163. Thou wast.
Anni chū-tini si	Ānniā om	164. He was.
Kan-ni chū-tini si	Kan in-jā-in kan om .	165. We were.
Nan-ni chū-tini si		166. You were.
An-ni chū-tini si	Ān-ni kan (i.e., an) om	167. They were.
Ā-shi-lai	Chāng	168. Be.
Ā-shi-lai	Châng chỗ la	. 169. To be.
Chū-tini-si	Chāng ti	170. Being.
Ā-shi-lai	Chāng-en-ā	. 171. Having been.
Kei ä-shi-lai	Kei chāng-cheng kā-ti	172. I may be.
Kei-mā kā si-lai	Kei-mā chāng kā-ti .	. 173. I shall be.
	Kei-mā chāng kā-ti .	. 174. I should be.
∀ ūа	Jel-ro	. 175. Beat.
Kā vūak-lai	Jel-tā	. 176. To beat.
Ā-vūak zia	Jel-ro	. 177. Beating.
Ā-vūak si-lai	Jel-tū (Noun of agency)	. 178. Having beaten.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak .	Kei-mā ke-jel	. 179. I beat.
Nang an (i.e. nā) vūak	Nang-mā jel-rō (lit. beat)	. 180. Thou beatest.
An-ni a-vūak	Ā-mān ā jel	. 181. He beats.
Kan-mā-ni kan-vūak	Kei-mā kā jel	. 182. We beat.
Nan-mā an (i.e. nan) vūak	Nang-mā jel-ro (lit. beat)	. 183. You beat.
An-ni an-vūak	Ān-nin ā jel	. 184. They beat.

English.		Lai (E	Iaka).		Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
185. I beat (Past Ten	nsө) .	Ka-vēļ-sang				Ka-vēl
186. Thou beatest Tense).	(Past	Na-vēļ-sang	•		,	I-vēl
187. He beat (Past T	Tense) .	A-vēl-sang		•		A-vēl
188. We beat (Past 7	Tense).	Kan-vēl-sang		•		Kan-vēl
189. You beat (Past	Tense)	Nan-vēļ-sang			·····	In-vēl
190. They beat (Past	Tense)	An-vēļ-sang				An-vēl
191. I am beating		Ka-vēļ-leo				Ka-vēl-mēk
192. I was beating	<i>:</i> .	Ka-vēļ-leo-ē				Ka-vēl-tā
193. I had beaten		K*-věļ-dī-ai			 	Ka-vēl-tā
194. I may beat		Kª-vēļ-dik				Ka-vēl-thei-e
195. I shall beat		Ka-vēļ-lai				Ka-vēl-ang
196. Thou wilt beat		Nª-vēļ-lai				I-vēl-ang
197. He will beat		A-vēļ-lai			Ammā wa-shē-tsa (he will come).	A-vēl-ang
198. We shall beat		Kan-vēļ-lai				Kan-vēl-ang
199. You will beat		Nan-vēļ-lai				In-vēl-ang
200. They will beat .		An-vēļ-lai				An-vēl-ang
201. I should beat .						Ka-vēl-tūr
202. I am beaten .		Amma-nē a-ka-	vēl			Vel ka-ni
203. I was beaten .		Amma-në a-k ^a -	vēļ-sa	ng		Vel ka-nī-tā
204. I shall be beaten		Amma-nē a-ka-	vēļ-la	i	·····	Vel ka-nī-thei-ang
205. I go		Ka-kal .				Ka-kal
206. Thou goest .		N°-kal .			·····	I-kal
207. He goes		A-kal .				A-kal
208. We go		Kan-kal .				Kan-kal-mēk (in the act of going).
209. You go		Nan-kal .				In-kal-mēk
210. They go		An-kal .				An-kal-mék

Banjögī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
		185. I beat (Past Tense).
		186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).
·		187. He beat (Past Tense).
	. ****	188. We beat (Past Tense).
		189. You beat (Past Tense).
		190. They beat (Past Tense).
Kei-mā-ni tūā kā-vūak .	Kei-mā kā jel roa	191. I am beating.
Kei-mā-ni tūana kā-vūak .	Kei-mā kā jel en	192. I was beating.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak roh	Kei-mā ā (i.e., kā) jel .	193. I had beaten.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak-kho-lai .	Kei khām jel kā or (sic.)	194. I may beat.
Kei-mā-ni kā-vūak-lai	Zel-kā-ti	195. I shall beat.
•••••	·····	196. Thou wilt beat.
	•••••	197. He will beat.
		198. We shall beat.
****		199. You will beat.
	····	200. They will beat.
Kei-ma-ni kā-vūak-lai '.	Zel-kā-ti	201. I should beat.
An hanga vüak	Kei-mā ā jel	202. I am beaten.
En (i.e. an?) kā-vūak-roh	Ton ā jel	203. I was beaten.
Vũak kã dan-lai	Kei-mā ā jel-āt	204. I shall be beaten.
Kā kal-lai	Kal ka-ti	. 205. I go.
Nang-mā kal	Nang kal-rō	. 206. Thou goest.
Anni ā-kal	Ānni-chū kal .	207. He goes.
••••		208. We go.
	,	209. You go.
		210. They go.
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English.	Lai (Haka).	Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulien).
211. I went	Ka-kal-sang		Ka-kal-tâ
212. Thou wentest	Na-kal-sang		I-kal-tâ
213. He went	A-kal-sang		A-kal-tâ
214. We went	Kan-kal-sang		Kan-kal
215. You went	Nan-kal-sang		In-kal
216. They went	An-kal-sang		An-kal
217. Go	Kal-lo	She	Kal-roh
218. Going	Kal-ling-mang	, <u></u> 6 % %	Kal-mēk
219. Gone	Kal-nāk	·	Kal-tā
220. What is your name? .	Na-min ho da shī?	Nang-mā min ho-ta shē? .	Tu-nge i mhing ?
221. How old is this horse?		Hi myin hi a-kom yē-yauk- kai tsā ?	Hē sā-kor hi hi kum eng- zat nge ?
222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?	Mahin Kashmir zê shan da a lhāt?	(Kashmir) yai san sa lhat ?	Hē-tā ṭang-in Kashmir eng- chenā lhā nge ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?		······	I pā in-ā fā-pā eng-zat nge om ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.		·	Voinā lhā tak-ā ka-kal (or kaleng).
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.			Ka-pā fā-pā-in a-far-nū nupui-ā a-nei.
226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.			In chhung-ā sā-kor var thuam a-om.
227. Put the saddle upon his back.		<u></u>	Sā-kor thuam a-nhung-ā dah-roh,
223. I have beaten his son with many stripes.			Ā-mā fā-pā tiang-in voi tam-tak ka-vua.
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.			Tlāng chhip-ā ā-mā-in ran châ a-ei-tīr.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.			Thing nhuai a sā-kor chung-ā a-ṭhū.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.			A-far-nū ai-in a-ū-nao a- shāng-zāk.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.		·····	A-man cheng nhih leh duli a-ni.

Banjögī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Kei-mā kā-kal-ro	Kei-chū kā kal roa .	211. I went,
Nang na-kal-ro	Kei chū kā (i.e. nang- chū nā) kal roa.	212. Thou wentest,
Anni ā-kal-ro	Ānni-chū kal	213. He went.
		214. We went.
(*************************************		215. You went.
		216. They went.
Ä-kal	Kalro	217. Go.
Kā kal-ā	•••••	218. Going.
Kal-ro	Kal-roa	219. Gone.
Nang min ão ?	Na rmin ā-tū?	220. What is your name?
Hi rang kūm zē-zā-sā-ti? .	Nē sā-kor kūm kā-jā-ka? .	221. How old is this horse?
Hi-tok-in Kashmir kār zē- zān-sā-ti ?	O-mā thak-hin Kashmir ko- ten-kā?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Nang in-ā nā-pā fā zē-zā-sā um?	Ni-pā inn-ā mi-pā nāo ko-jā- kā-en om ?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
Tū-tsūn lām lā-tā kā-toi .	Vei-ni hin sē yēl ka kal.	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Kā-pū fā-nū kassit (?)	Kā-pā sūa-pūi nāo-in ā- char-nū ā-nci.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Hi in-ā rang ā-nāo zing- pūan to-fa o-um.	O-mā inn-ā sā-kor chung chuana ā om.	226. In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.
Āo hi-hi ki-ken tlūna vāshya.	Ā-nung-ā sā-bung chuon-ro.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Kei-mā-ni hi fā-hi kā-vūak- chiam.	Anni nao ho kā jel	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Hi hi kunvülmi ā-zāo rol pē.	Ho rūm noyā rumbā kālā ā kāl.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Khi tin tāngā rang kēng tlūna ā-tāo.	Ānni ho thin thoyā ān-thâ-rāo.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Anni ngākin hi hi sang dau	Ā-chūa-pūi-pā ā-char-nū nākan an-chāng.	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Himān hi tāngā ni lēh āshyao.	O-mā mān tānkā ni nungun ādāli,	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.

English.	Lai (Haka).	Shonshe of Gangaw (F. H. Eliott).	Lushëi (Dulicn).
233. My father lives in that small house.			Ka-pā in te-tak chhung-ā a-om.
234. Give this rupee to him			Ā-mā nhen-ā hē tangka hi pē-roh.
235. Take those rupees from him.			Ā-mā nhenā-tā tangka tē pē-lā-rob.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.			Ā-mā ṭbā-takin vēl-lā rhui- in phuar-roh.
237. Draw water from the well.			Tui-khuah-ā-tā tui chci- roh.
238. Walk before me			Ka-mbā-ā kal-roh
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	•••••		Tū nao-pang nge i-nhung- ā kal ?
240. From whom did you buy that?			Khoiā-tā i-lei-nge ? .
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.			Khuā-ā dârkai nhenā-tā

Banjēgī (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Pānkhū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	English.
Kā-pā khi in tē-ā ā-ūm.	Kā-pā in tē-ā om	233. My father lives in that small house.
Hi tāngā hi khi va-pē .	O-mā tānkā ānni ho pa-ngei kā-ti.	234. Give this rupee to him.
Hi tāngā hi khi chinnā valā.	O-mā tānkā hong-choy-rang	235. Take those rupees from him.
Hi hi vüak rēai-in phūar .	Jel-chea-in-lā poa-rang .	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Ti hi khūr-in nūk	Tũi lāk-ā tũi hong-thân-ro .	237. Draw water from the well.
Kei-mā va-kal	Kei-mā māk-ti-ē kal-ro .	238. Walk before me.
Nā dūng lēi-mi ā-fā-tsā ? .	Ne nungka-ti-ē ā-tu nao hong-kal?	239. Whose boy comes be- hind you?
Hi hi ā-shin-sā nē-sak? .	Mā-hā tũ kũng-mēn mē (i.e. nē) chēng ?	240. From whom did you buy that?
Hi kūa chen chinā kā-sak .	O-ho-mā kūa dokāndār kūngā kā-ten.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

OLD-KUKI SUB-GROUP.

The Old-Kuki sub-group comprises several dialects which are so closely connected that they cannot have had a long independent development of their own. They are as follows:—

Rängkhol,	spoker	a by											7,820
Bētē,	,,	,,,											630
Hallām,													26,848
Langrong,	"	"											6,266 (?)
Aimol,	"	"											750 (?)
Chiru,	"	"	·	i									750 (?)
Kolrēn,	"	"		•									750 (?)
Kōm,	27	"											750 (?)
Châ,	"	**											(?)
Mhār,	"	"	•					·			·		2,000
Billar,	"	"	•	•	•		0.70	-5	1		i i	- 6	,
	Total, at least											46,564	
				•						,			

To these must probably be added the remnants of the Chote, Muntuk, and Karum tribes in the Manipur State, and three dialects in Manipur which have been largely influenced by Meithei. These latter dialects are:—

								T	OTAL	2,250
Hirōi Lamgāng, spoken by	•	•	٠	٠	•	•	•	•		750 (?)
Anāl, " " .										
Pūrūm, spoken by .										

The grand total would then be at least 48,814.

Anāl and Hirōi-Lamgāng are most influenced by Meithei, and will probably soon be superseded by that language. These two dialects and Kōm in some points agree with the Nāgā languages.

Châ is, as yet, almost unknown. It seems, however, to agree so closely with the other dialects of the group that it must be classed with them.

The Old Kuki tribes seem to have been settled in Lushai land about a century ago. They were driven out by the Thādos, and the Mhār tribe was probably left behind. This dialect has come under the influence of Lushēi, and is a link between that language and Old Kuki. The whole sub-group is very closely related to the Central Chin languages.

RĀNGKHŌL.

The Rāngkhōls or Rengkhāls are now found in Hill Tippera and North Cachar. The following figures have been returned:—

										Num	ber (or speakers
	Hill Tippera		•	•	٠.	•			•		•	-
,	North Cachar	 			•	•	•	•	•	•		2,400
						4.0	*		To	FAL		6,900

To this total must probably be added 920 individuals in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. They were returned as speaking Kuki.

Mr. C. A. Soppitt makes the following statement with regard to their earlier history:—

'About the middle of the sixteenth century, as near as can be ascertained, the Rangkhols (Kukis) inhabited the country now occupied by the Lushais, bordering Cachar, and their neighbours were the Bētēs (Kukis). with whom they were on friendly terms and whose language and their own was practically the same. In other words, the Bētēs were a co-tribe, though not one and the same. The present Jansens (Kukis) lived in the hills immediately at the back of the Rangkhols, and commenced to oppress them, by degrees succeeding in driving them nearer and nearer the plains, and then ultimately out of the country across Cachar into the North Cachar Hills and Manipur, a small body taking refuge in Tipperah territory. Scarcely had the Rangkhols been driven out, when the Bētēs found themselves in much the same position as regards the oppression exercised by the Jansens, and following in the footsteps of their friends (the Rangkhols), crossed into Cachar. We thus find the Rangkhols and their co-tribe, the Bētēs, driven out of Lushāi-land (now so-called), not by the people called Lushais, though they may or may not have indirectly aided the exodus, but by the Jansens (Kukis). The first settlers in the North Cachar Hills, then under the Kachari 'Raj', paid tribute regularly to the Rāja at Maibong; but they do not appear to have been otherwise interfered with by the Kacharis, with whom they lived on the best of terms.'

The immigration of the Rāngkhōls into Cachar took place somewhere between 1810 and 1820 and seems to have been indirectly due to the forward movement of the Lushēis under Lāllūlā, which began about 1810.

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- Soppitt, C. A.—A short Account of the Kuki-Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (Districts Cachar, Sylhet, Nága Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and A Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887.
- DAVIS, A. W.,—Gazetteer of the North Lushai Hills. Compiled under the Orders of the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Shillong, 1894. Short note on the Rangkhöls on pp. 3 and f.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from North Cachar. The spelling in both is very inconsistent. I have printed the parable exactly as I have received it, but I have subjoined, in italics, a text, corrected so far as is possible, to agree with Mr. Soppitt's grammar. In the list of words I have corrected the spelling, so far as I could, and in several places have added the corresponding forms and words from Mr. Soppitt's book. The notes on Rāngkhōl grammar which follow are based on Mr. Soppitt's account and on the specimens.

Pronunciation.—Several points regarding the pronunciation must remain uncertain. The short a is pronounced like the a in 'company.' The sound \ddot{u} (as in German 'Mühe') is said to occur, but to be very rare. Mr. Soppitt often writes an h before or after a long vowel; thus, $h\bar{o}m$, to be (but $\bar{o}m\bar{a}k$, i.e., $\bar{o}m$ - $m\bar{a}k$, no); $m\bar{o}h$, the interrogative particle, etc. He does not say anything about the pronunciation of this h, and, in accordance with the practice in nearly connected dialects, such as Hallām and Langrong, I have not adopted it. The vowels i and e seem to be interchangeable in some places. Thus we find the prefix in consistently written en by Mr. Soppitt. The sound is perhaps an open i. Thus, in- $k\bar{a}t$, Soppitt en- $k\bar{a}t$, one. Sometimes a final \bar{i} is nasalised; thus, $n\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{i}$ or $n\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{i}ng$, not. The termination ing often corresponds to in in connected languages; thus, \bar{a} -reng-ing, Hallām \bar{a} - $r\bar{e}ng$ -in, all, etc. Mr. Soppitt remarks that the letter g in his book sometimes denotes the deep guttural k. He perhaps

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wrote q, but g has been everywhere printed. It is therefore impossible to tell in which words the deep guttural k occurs. A soft consonant in many cases corresponds to a tenuis in connected languages of the group. Thus, $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, Hallām $k\bar{e}i$ - $m\bar{a}$, I; $g\bar{e}l$, Hallām $k\bar{e}l$, goat; $b\bar{a}s\bar{a}l$, Hallām $p\bar{a}$ -sal, male; $j\bar{u}$, Hallām chu, a demonstrative particle; hong-joi, Hallām hong-choi, bring, etc. The soft consonant often represents a more ancient stage of phonetical development. Rāngkhōl in this respect agrees with the languages of the Nāgā and Bodo Groups. Hard and soft consonants, however, sometimes interchange in the same word. Thus, $g\bar{e}$ and $k\bar{e}$, foot; goi and koi, call; $g\bar{u}t$ and $k\bar{u}t$, hand. The real sound of such consonants is, therefore, probably, something between hard and soft. They are hard lenes.

Sh and s are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, $s\bar{a}$, good, $sh\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}k$, bad. Consonants are occasionally silent; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ and $p\bar{e}$, give, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral kāt, one, may be used as an indefinite article, while definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship, and parts of the body are apparently always preceded by pronominal prefixes. Thus, $ga-\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$, elder brother; lit., my elder brother; $\bar{a}-p\bar{i}ng$, belly, lit., his belly. $Ga-p\bar{a}$ is said to mean 'a father,' but it is still uncertain whether this use of ga and ka is correct, and I have not found any instance of it in the sentences given by Mr. Soppitt. Such forms occur several times in the texts.

Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. In the case of human beings different words may be used. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim, man; $n\bar{\imath}$ -reng, woman: $b\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, male; $n\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, female: $r\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}r$ - $t\bar{e}$, boy; dau- $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{e}$, girl. The common suffixes used to distinguish the gender are $p\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, male; $n\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{\imath}$ -ping, female. Thus, $v\bar{a}r$ - $p\bar{a}$, an old man; $v\bar{a}r$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, an old woman: nai- $b\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, son; nai $n\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, daughter. In the case of animals the corresponding suffixes are \bar{a} - $j\bar{a}l$, male, and \bar{a} - $n\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, female. Thus, $s\bar{e}$ - $rh\bar{a}t$ \bar{a} - $j\bar{a}l$, bull; $s\bar{e}$ - $rh\bar{a}t$ \bar{a} - $n\bar{\imath}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, cow. In the list of words they are given as $j\bar{a}l$ and $n\bar{\imath}$; thus, $g\bar{e}l$ - $j\bar{a}l$, a he goat; $g\bar{e}l$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, a she goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. No suffix is used when the number appears from the context. When it is necessary to distinguish the plural, the suffix hai is added. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim-hai, men. In mal-ha-le, friends with, ha, instead of hai, is probably only a blunder. Mal seems to correspond to Hallām $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}l$, friend. In the corrected text I have therefore written mal-hai- $l\bar{e}$. Hai seems also to be a demonstrative pronoun or the suffix of a noun of agency. Thus, in-shin-hai \bar{a} - $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{a}$, the servant he said; $g\bar{a}l\bar{\imath}m$ -hai er- $m\bar{\imath}ng$ $\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, the 'galim's' name what? The suffix hai is sometimes added to the verb; thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ \bar{a} - $\bar{o}m$ - $m\bar{a}$ -hai, anybody they are not. Compare also \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}$ -hai, his village-of (they are), i.e. (they belong to) his village; $m\bar{\imath}$ -rim \bar{a} - $h\bar{o}ng$ -hai, the men they-came-they, the men that came.

Case.—Mr. Soppitt enumerates eight cases, nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, and vocative, but his own instances show that Rāng-khōl does not, in this respect, differ from other connected languages. The base alone, without any suffix, is used as a Nominative, an Accusative, and a Vocative. This form is apparently also used when the noun is the subject of a transitive verb; thus, mī-rim-hai būhōm ā-tā, the-men the-paddy they-have-cut. This is also often the case in other Tibeto-Burman languages when the acting subject is known as such from the context;

e.g., in Tibetan, both in modern talk and in the classical literature. There are a few traces of the common suffix in, or ing (see above), used to denote the subject of a. transitive verb. Thus, ā-nai-ing vai mān-rāng, his sons alone get-will (will get); mī-dāng-īn ā-mū, the other-men they-saw; mī-rim en-kāt-īn en-kāt ā-tāt-tā, the men one one they-killed, the men killed each other. The Dative is denoted by means of postpositions such as $k\bar{a}$ and \bar{a} . Thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ s $\bar{\imath}$ -lai $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$, him-to gun gives; $g\bar{e}$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ hai-ā shūm ā-pē-tā, I them-to money gave. In ā-mā-kat tī-rung, him-to I say will, kat is perhaps only a mistake for $k\bar{a}$. An Ablative is formed by adding the postpositions \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}k$; thus, $ga \cdot p\bar{a} \cdot t\bar{a}k$, my father from; $m\bar{e} \cdot \bar{a} \cdot t\bar{a}$ $t\bar{\imath}ng$ $t\bar{a} \cdot r\bar{o}$, fire from wood take. The list of standard words has a suffix $j\bar{u}ng$ -a or $j\bar{u}ng$, and adds the former in the singular after $t\bar{a}k$, the latter in the plural before $t\bar{a}k$. Thus, ga- $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}k$ $j\bar{u}ng$ -a, from a father; gapā-jung-tak, from fathers. The two instances just given show the great inconsistency in the spelling of the list. The suffix $j\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} is certainly identical with $ch\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , in, on, from, in other languages such as Lushēi, Hallām, etc. The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, ga-pā-tēr bā-sāl, my uncle's son. The governed noun may be repeated by means of a possessive pronoun; thus, mī-rim ā lū, the man his head. Mr. Soppitt mentions a genitive suffix nī, the list of words $n\bar{\imath}$ and $m\bar{o}$. No instances are given of the use of either by Mr. Soppitt. The list of words gives kuo-mō bēpāri, a shop-keeper of the village. The suffix $n\bar{\imath}$ may be meant in the words gē-mā ā-pa-īn īn-shīn-hai, my father's-of servants, if I am right in correcting to $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$. If that be so then the suffix $n\bar{\imath}$ is probably the verb substantive, and is used as a relative participle; thus, 'my father's-being servants.' The suffix of the Locative is \bar{a} ; thus, $r\bar{a}m-\bar{a}$, country-in; $\bar{\imath}n-\bar{a}$, house-in. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as $\bar{\alpha}$ -nai, near; $\bar{\alpha}$ -ni- $\bar{\alpha}$, on account of; en-nung, behind; jān-pui, together with; lē, with; mā-tōn-ā, before; shūng-ā, into; tēn or tīng, in, etc. A postposition $g\bar{u}ng$ or gang occurs in two places, $g\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $g\bar{u}ng$, his father to; an- $j\bar{u}n$ gang, harlots with. It is probably identical with kūng which is found in one instance in Mr. Soppitt's grammar; thus, ā-mā tū-kūng mō bū-fai ā-mān-tā, he whom-from rice he bought? Compare māi-kūng-ā, before, in Kolrēn and similar forms in Aimol, Anāl, Chiru, Kom, etc.

Adjectives.—The adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes are added to them, and not to the qualified nouns. The adjectives, however, precede the noun when special stress is laid on them; thus, $\bar{a}n\bar{a}-l\bar{e}$ $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}-tin$ $\bar{a}-t\bar{o}$ $sh\bar{a}-m\bar{a}k$ $p\bar{a}-t\bar{i}n$ $\bar{a}-t\bar{o}-m\bar{o}$, sickness-being, good gods they-worship, (or) bad gods they-worship?

The suffix of the Comparative is $\bar{o}l$, and of the Superlative $t\bar{a}k$; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hai $\bar{i}n$ $sh\bar{o}$ -hai $\bar{i}n$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{i}n$ - $\bar{o}l$, this house that house (than) greater; \bar{u} - $l\bar{i}n$ - $t\bar{a}k$, the eldest brother. The suffixes $\bar{o}l$ and $t\bar{a}k$ can be optionally omitted; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ $g\bar{a}$ - \bar{u} - $n\bar{u}$ \bar{a} - $l\bar{i}n$ \bar{a} $\bar{o}m$, his brother his sister (than) tall he is; $p\bar{u}l$ \bar{a} -reng-ing \bar{a} - $sh\bar{a}$, eloth all (than) good.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. Mr. Soppitt gives en as the prefix of the first numerals instead of in in the list. It is probably a generic prefix. But no rule is given for its use, and we find for instance $m\bar{\imath}-rim$ $k\bar{a}t$ and $m\bar{\imath}-rim$ $en-k\bar{a}t$, both meaning a man. The prefix $d\bar{a}r$ is used when the numerals refer to money, $d\bar{\imath}$ when they refer to houses. Thus, $d\bar{a}r$ $sh\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}$ $m\bar{\imath}$ $t\bar{\imath}$ forty houses. The numerals follow the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—
Singular.

 $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, $g\bar{e}$, ga, I, my. $g\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, mine.

nang, nang-mā, thou.

nang, nang-mā, nē, nī, thy.

nang-mā, thine.

 \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, $m\bar{\imath}$, he, she, it.

 \tilde{a} - $m\tilde{a}$, \tilde{a} , his, her, its.

 \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, his, hers, its.

Plural.

 $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ -hai, $g\bar{e}$ -hai, $g\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$ -hai, $g\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{\imath}$, we, our.

gē-mā-hai-nī, ours.

nang-mā-hai, nang-nī, you, your.

nang-nī, nang-mā-hai-nī, your, yours.

ā-mā-hai, mī-hai, they.

ā-mā-hai, mī-hai, their.

 \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hai- $n\bar{\imath}$, theirs.

The above list is a combination of the forms given by Mr. Soppitt and of those given in the list of words. The former authority states that the plural suffix hai is rarely used in the first and second persons plural. He also considers $m\bar{a}$ in $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, etc., as a genitive suffix. The use of the suffix $n\bar{\imath}$ in the genitive has already been referred to. Mr. Soppitt gives $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ for 'mine' and 'ours' and nang- $m\bar{a}$ for 'thine' and 'yours.' The ordinary suffixes may be added. Thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $g\bar{e}$, he his foot. Note $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -nai, my daughter, not $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ $g\bar{e}$ -nai. The \bar{a} has here become a real suffix of the genitive. Compare Pronominal prefixes to verbs, below, and Introduction, p. 17.

The Reflexive pronoun is perhaps en; thus, jong, word; en-jong, dispute.

The *Demonstrative pronouns* are \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hi, this; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, that; $sh\bar{o}$ -hai, that; $k\bar{u}$ -hai, that; $k\bar{u}$ -hai, these; $k\bar{u}$ -hai- $k\bar{u}$, those. The pronoun $j\bar{u}$, also written $j\bar{o}$, seems only to be used as an intensifying participle. Thus, \bar{a} - $t\bar{u}n$ - $j\bar{o}$, now, Hallām \bar{a} -tun-chu.

There is no Relative pronoun. Participles and interrogative pronouns are used instead. Thus, \bar{a} - $r\bar{o}t$ - $p\bar{u}$ -hai \bar{a} - $h\bar{o}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, the-runners-away they-have-come; $m\bar{i}$ -rim \bar{a} - $h\bar{o}ng$ -hai $f\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}g$ - $t\bar{a}$, men they-came-they returned, the men who came returned; $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}n$ \bar{i} - $j\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -ka-ka $n\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ $n\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}n$, my property how-much? that thy property, all that is mine is thine.

Interrogative pronouns.— $T\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{o}$, who ? $\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$, what ? $\bar{\imath}$ - $j\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ - $d\bar{o}r$ - $m\bar{o}$, how many ? $\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{o}$, what is the matter ? Thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $m\bar{o}$ s \bar{e} - $rh\bar{a}t$ or $t\bar{u}$ -s \bar{e} - $rh\bar{a}t$ - $m\bar{o}$, whose cow ? $\bar{\imath}$ - $m\bar{o}$ sh $\bar{\imath}l$, what mithan?

Indefinite pronouns.—Tū-tē, anyone; ī-tē, anything, any; ī-dōr, so many, etc.

Verbs.—Verbs may be conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. I have come across the following:—

 $g\bar{e}$ and ga, I; $g\bar{e}n$, gin, gan, and $g\bar{e}$, we: $n\bar{\imath}$ and $n\bar{e}$, thou; nin and $n\bar{e}$, you: \bar{a} , he, she, it; \bar{a} or an, they. There is, as will be seen, some irregularity in the spelling, and the singular forms are also used in the plural. The prefixes are apparently very often dropped, and \bar{a} may be substituted for all of them. Thus, nang \bar{a} - $n\bar{\imath}$ -tin $g\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}n$ -pui \bar{a} - $\bar{o}m$ - $t\bar{a}$, thou always me with wast. This fact corresponds to the use of \bar{a} in forming possessive pronouns. The pronominal prefixes can themselves be considered as possessive pronouns added to the word which has the function of the verb.

The root alone without any suffix is freely used to denote present and past times; thus, $g\bar{e}$ $f\bar{e}$, I go; \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hai \bar{a} - $t\bar{\imath}$, they said; $g\bar{e}$ jem, I am, or was, beating.

A Present definite and an Imperfect seem also to be formed by adding $\bar{e}n$ or $l\bar{e}$; thus, $m\bar{i}$ -rim-hai $k\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} $\bar{o}m$ - $\bar{e}n$, men village-in they are living; $s\bar{a}$ -j $\bar{u}k$ -hai ram- \bar{a} \bar{a} $\bar{o}m$ - $l\bar{e}$, deer jungle-in they are-living.

The suffix of the *Past tenses* is $t\bar{a}$; thus, \bar{a} $t\bar{a}t-t\bar{a}$, he killed. $T\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$, formerly, may be added before the verb; thus, $t\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ \bar{a} $t\bar{\imath}-t\bar{a}$, formerly he died, he had died. Compare compound verbs.

The suffix of the *Future* is $r\bar{a}ng$, probably identical with the infinitive suffix. The pronominal prefixes seem to be regularly dropped before the future. Thus, $f\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ $t\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, I will go and say. This tense is commonly used in order to denote the purpose; thus, $g\bar{e}l$ - $t\bar{e}$ en- $k\bar{a}t$ $n\bar{i}$ $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}k$ $m\bar{a}l$ -hai- $l\bar{e}$ $f\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, kid one thou gavest-not friends-with (that I) might-eat. Compare Infinitive, below.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is $r\bar{o}$, plural $r\bar{o}i$; thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$, give; $\bar{o}m$ - $r\bar{o}$ -i, be you. The plural form is very seldom used. $R\bar{o}$ often occurs in connection with another suffix $sh\bar{e}$; thus, $m\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{a}ng$ \bar{a} - $t\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$, let others do it; $n\bar{a}ng$ \bar{i} - $t\bar{i}g$ - $m\bar{o}$ $m\bar{i}$ -rim-hai $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$, thou when men give-wilt? When will you give the men? This form seems to correspond to the Lushēi imperative of the third person (thus, ni- $r\bar{o}$ - $s\bar{e}$, let him, or them, be), but is also used to form a future, as above, and, most commonly, as an infinitive of purpose; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}$ - $j\bar{u}k$ $j\bar{o}ng$ - $r\bar{o}$ - $sh\bar{e}$ \bar{a} $f\bar{e}$, he deer to-seek he goes. In the negative imperative $n\bar{o}$ is prefixed to $r\bar{o}$; thus, $\bar{o}m$ - $n\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$, be not.

The suffix of the *Infinitive* is $r\bar{a}ng$; thus, $f\bar{a}-r\bar{a}ng$ $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}-r\bar{a}ng$, to-eat to-drink good-will-be; $\bar{a}-m\bar{a}-hai$ $f\bar{e}-r\bar{a}ng$ $\bar{a}-n\bar{\imath}$, they to-go it-is, they should go; $l\bar{a}m-r\bar{a}ng$ $en-r\bar{\imath}t-t\bar{a}$, dancing he heard. As mentioned above, this form is identical with the future; thus, $n\bar{a}g-t\bar{u}k$ $g\bar{e}-j\bar{a}n-pui$ $h\bar{o}ng-r\bar{o}$, $s\bar{a}-j\bar{u}k$ $k\bar{a}p-r\bar{a}ng$, to-morrow me-with come, deer to shoot, or, we will shoot deer. I have not found any instance of the root alone used as a verbal noun, but there is no reason to doubt that it may be used in that way. It is the base of most participles and compound verbs.

Participles.—The suffixes \bar{a} and $\bar{e}n-t\bar{e}$ (or $\bar{e}n-j\bar{u}$) are both used to form Conjunctive participles. Thus, \bar{a} $k\bar{a}p-\bar{a}$ $m\bar{i}$ -rim \bar{a} -t $\bar{a}t$ -t \bar{a} , he firing the man he killed; \bar{a} -rot- \bar{a} \bar{a} -in- $k\bar{u}$, he-running he embraced; nang \bar{a} -f \bar{e} -e $\bar{e}n$ -t \bar{e} sh \bar{u} m m \bar{a} n-r \bar{a} ng, you going money get-will. The participle ending in $\bar{e}n$ -t \bar{e} is commonly used as a subjunctive mood. The suffix $l\bar{e}$ forms Adverbial participles; thus, \bar{a} -n \bar{a} -l \bar{e} sh \bar{a} -m \bar{a} k p \bar{a} -t \bar{i} n \bar{a} -t \bar{o} , ill-being, evil god they worship, when they are ill they worship evil spirits. A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix $p\bar{u}$; thus, \bar{a} -o \bar{m} -r \bar{a} ng-p \bar{u} , the man who will be. $P\bar{a}$ may be substituted for $p\bar{u}$, without changing the sense.

The Passive voice may be expressed by prefixing the participle ending in $\bar{e}n$ - $t\bar{e}$ or $\bar{e}n$ - $j\bar{u}$ to the verb ni, to be; thus, \bar{a} - $g\bar{o}i$ - $\bar{e}n$ - $j\bar{u}$ \bar{a} -ni, I am called, lit. 'he-calling it-is.' This form seems, however, to be very rare, and the passive voice is commonly not distinguishable in form from the active, but can only be recognised from the context. Thus, $m\bar{a}n$ - $n\bar{o}k$ - $t\bar{a}$ he is found again. Forms such as $g\bar{e}$ - $j\bar{e}m$ - $f\bar{a}k$, I am beaten, in the list of words literally mean 'I-beating-eat.'

Compound verbs.—Several prefixes are used in forming compound verbs. Hōng denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hōng-koi, to call; hōng-joi, to bring. Ir or er makes the verb causative; thus, mu, see; er-mū, show; er-būn, to cause to put on, etc. Causatives are also formed by adding the verb $p\bar{e}k$, to give; thus, en, to see; en- $p\bar{e}$ -rō, show. A potential is formed by adding the verb $t\bar{e}$, to be able, or allowed to; thus, nang $k\bar{a}m$ $t\bar{o}$ -t \bar{e} -t \bar{a} , you work do-could. The verb $j\bar{o}i$, to complete, finish, is very commonly added to other verbs and forms a kind of past tenses. Thus, \bar{a} -m \bar{a} sh $\bar{u}m$ \bar{a} -renging \bar{a} -pai- $j\bar{o}i$ -t \bar{a} , he money all he-to-squander-finished, he had wasted all his money; $g\bar{e}$ \bar{a} - $\bar{o}m$ - $j\bar{o}i$ -r $\bar{u}ng$, I shall have been, etc. Other words added in order to form compound verbs are, $b\bar{a}k$, much, very; $k\bar{i}$, back; $n\bar{o}$ or $n\bar{o}k$, back, again; $r\bar{a}t$, quickly; $v\bar{a}ki$, exactly, etc.

The Negative particles are $m\bar{a}k$, $m\bar{a}ing$, loi, and $n\bar{o}$ -ni. Thus, $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}k$, gave not; $sh\bar{i}n$ - $m\bar{a}iing$, did not; $sh\bar{a}$ -loi, good-not, evil; $t\bar{i}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{o}$ -ni, call-can-not. In the present tense, and after the suffix $t\bar{a}$ in the past tenses, $n\bar{o}ni$, is the regular negative; in the future, $m\bar{a}k$ or ni- $m\bar{a}k$; in the past tense formed without a suffix, $m\bar{a}k$; in the imperative, $n\bar{o}$; and in the past tense of the compounds formed by adding $j\bar{o}i$, $m\bar{a}ing$ is said to be the correct form. Another negative particle $b\bar{u}i$ seems to occur in words such as \bar{a} - $b\bar{u}i$ - $t\bar{e}$, without; $d\bar{i}r$ - $b\bar{u}i$, naked, etc. Compare Thādo $p\bar{o}i$.

The Interrogative particle is $m\bar{o}$. Its position seems to be somewhat free. Thus, nang $k\bar{o}$ -tīng- $m\bar{o}$ $n\bar{i}$ - $f\bar{e}$, you where you-go? \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hai $k\bar{o}$ -tīng \bar{a} - $\bar{o}m$ - $m\bar{o}$, they where theyare? That is to say, the interrogative particle may be added to the verb, or to an interrogative pronoun.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs. In the present tense the suffix $t\bar{a}$ is added. Thus, \bar{a} $s\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, it good is; $g\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{i}$ - $d\bar{o}r$ - $t\bar{a}$, I dead-like-am; \bar{a} - $s\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, it good be will.

Order of words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb.

[No. 15.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

${\bf R\bar{A}NGKH\bar{O}L}.$

17				(DISTRICT,	NORTH CACHAR.)				
Mi-riim in-kat-	lē bashal	in-ni a	omta.	Nai-te āi	inta gāpagūng				
Mī-rim en-kāt-					in-tāk ā-pā-gūng				
Man one-to	sons	two the			naller his-father-to				
atīta, 'Lukhana	nang-mā n	ēnūn	ājimrip	nīpērung,	ātūn nēpero,				
ā-tī-tā, 'Lāgānā	nang-mā n	ē-nūn	ā-jim-rip	nī-pē-rāng,	ā-tun nē-pē-rō,				
he-said, 'Afterwards	The State of the S	operty-of	half	thou-give-wilt,	now give,				
āshārung.' Āmā	-ankan aji	imrep	āpēkta.	Lukhana m	īshār ājīn naitē				
\bar{a} -s \bar{a} -r \bar{a} ng.' \bar{A} -m \bar{a} -	āng-kān ā-j	im-rip à	$ar{v}$ - $par{e}k$ - $tar{a}$.	Lāgānā mī-sā ā-jīn nai-tē					
it-good-be-will.' Acco	ordingly th	ne-half	he-gave.	Afterwards d	ay few son				
ājīntā nē-nūn	arenging	āph	ūngtā	ākmūn	alhār āphēta.				
ā-jīn-tāk nē-nūn	\bar{a} -r \bar{e} ng-in	\bar{a} - fi	īng-tā		\bar{a} - $lh\bar{a}$ \bar{a} - $f\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$.				
younger property	all	he-g	athered	country	distant he-went.				
Shōshana āphē sh	āmahk, apē	ina ām	ā nēnūr	a āpūmpuing	apai joitā.				
Shō-shōn-ā ā-fē-shō	i-māk, (?	\bar{a} - m	ā nē-nūr	ı ā-pūm-pūin	ā-pai-jōi-tā.				
There he-went	-badly, livi	ng his	property		he-to-waste-finished.				
Ā-ma shūm arengi		ijoita,	kāpūr	shāmāk ātak	ta. Āmātēnta				
Ā-mā shūm ā-rēng		i-jōi-tā,		shā-māk ā-tāk-	$t\bar{a}$. $\bar{A}m\bar{a}$ - $(t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $t\bar{a})$				
His property all	he-to-was	ste-completed,	famine	bad it-becar					
ājoitōr-jāmtār	anita.	Imātēn a	nkān	āmā rāmā	miriim kātlē				
$ar{a}$ - $ar{j}ar{o}i$ - $ar{t}ar{o}$ - $ar{j}ar{a}m$ - $ar{t}ar{a}$	\bar{a} - $n\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$. \bar{A} -	$m\bar{a}$ - $(t\bar{\imath}ng)$	-āng-kān	ā-mā rām-	ā mī-rim kāt-lē				
he-excessively-hungry-was	it-was.	That-reason	-for	that country	y-in man one-with				
aphēta jon-shīnhai		$V\bar{o}k$	ārūngha	āpēkta. Hīar	ngdhör äpeng jang				
ā-fē-tā jōng-shīn-hai		$V \delta k$			āng-dōr ā-ping-jām				
he-went servants'	work did.	\mathbf{Pigs}	to-feed		his-like hungry				
shābai phurrung	ānūāng,	phur	-	nērung tī	itē pēmak.				
(shā-vai) fā-rāng	$(\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}m)$,	fā-rā	ing	nē-rang tū	i-tē pē-māk.				
husks to-eat	he-wished,	to-ea			r-one gave-not.				
Āmātēn ājēntē	āfing-ūltā.				nshinhai phurrung				
A - $m\bar{a}$ - $(t\bar{\imath}ng)$ \bar{a} - $j\bar{\imath}n$ - $t\bar{e}$	ā-fing-ōl-tā.		•		-shīn-hai fā-rāng				
1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	he-wise-more-beca	me. He-said	•		servants to-eat				
nērung āttām	,	\mathbf{g} ē	phinjan	0	a. Gāpālē				
nē-rāng ā-tām	ā-ōm;	$gar{e}$	ping-jār	•	a or Iron of				
to-swallow much	there-is;	I	hungry	I-dying-condition-	in-am. My-father-to				
phērung āmākat	tirung,		dāpā,	Pāthiin sha	aloi gētorta,				
fē-rāng ā-mā-kā go-will him-to			a-pā,		$ar{a} ext{-loi} \qquad gar{e} ext{-to-ta},$				
	say-will,		y-father,		vil I-did,				
nungma shaloi	gētorta;	attūn	gēmajū	naipangdhō					
nang-mā shā-loi thee:of evil	gē-tō-tā;		gē-mā -jū	nai-pāng-dōr					
oree.or eart	I-did;	now	me	son-like	call-can-not."				

A =	ādamli	5. 4	āpā	ลา	phēta.	Alhā	r ล <u>ื</u> ด	m, at	tūnjō ·	āpā	
Amā	ā-dām		ā-pā-ā	•	fē-tā.	Ā-lhā			ūn-jū	\bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$	
$ar{A}$ - $mar{a}$	arose-at-o		his-father						•	his-father	
		āinkū		Naipang		Far ātīta,			athiin	shaloi	
āmūtā	ārōta				ā-mā-ā	•		_	\bar{a} - $t\bar{\imath}n$	shā-loi	
ā-mū-tā	ā-rōt-ā	ā-en(-k	•	Son	him-to	he-said,	-	_	od-of	evil	
he-saw,	he-running							gēmājū		angdhor	
gētōrta	\mathbf{nung}		aloi	gētōr	3300		nung		-	_	
$gar{e}$ - $tar{o}$ - $tar{a}$	nang-		i-loi	$g\bar{e}t\bar{o}$ -		Ĺ-tūn No₩	nang thou	gē-mā-jū	nar-p	āng-dō r	
I-did	thee-		ril	20000000							
titēmu]		Āpa	inshin		āgoita,	'Pūl	_	() () () () () () () () () ()		ngjoiro	
$tar{\imath}$ - $tar{e}$ - $mar{a}$		A - $par{a}$		-	ā-goi-tā,	'Cloth	ā-rēn all-(th	-	24	g-joi-rō	
call-can-no	t.' I	Iis-father	serva		he-called,					bring	
āmālē	dēr-gai	irō,	āmā	gūtha	gūtshā		oūnrō	āmā	āgē	jūtā	
\bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{e}$	(?)		$ar{a}$ - $mar{a}$	$gar{u}t$ - $ar{a}$	gūt-sāl	n b	ūn-rō	ā-mā	ā-kē	$j\bar{u}t\bar{a}$	
him-on	put,		his	hand-on	rings		put	his	feet	shoes	
irbūnrā			nār h	ongjoiro	tatrō,	_	_	hurung	nerung		
er-būn-r	ō, shērh	āt-tē ām	ēlā s ā hō	ng-joi-re	ō tāt-rō	, $g\bar{e}$ - m	ā-hai j	fā-rāng	nē-rāng		
cause-to-we	ar, ca	lf :	fat	bring	kill,	we		eat-will	feast-will	happy	
attām	ōmrung.	Gēn	iā bās	bal	ātita,	āttūn	ār	hing-nö ;	ārr	nāngtā,	
-	ōm-rāng.	$Gar{e}$ - n	rā nai-	bāsāl	\bar{a} - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$,	ā-tūn	\bar{a} -r	hing-nōg	; ā-1	māng-tā,	
very	be-will.	Му	. 80	n	he-died,	now	he-re	vived-again ;	he	-lost-was,	
āttūn	gēn	unoktā.		Āmātēn	atān	in	fārung		ājoitā.		
ā-tūn	0	ān-nōg-t		$ar{A}$ -m $ar{a}$ - $tar{\imath}$ n	g - \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$	en-	fā-rāng		ā-jōi-tā	ā.	
now	•	ound-again.'		Thereaf	-	toget	her-feast-t	0	they-prepa	red.	
_	mā	ūliinpā	i.	loi	ลืดข	ntā.	Īn	ār	nai ā	hõngta,	
	ша [-mā	ū-līn-p		lōi-ā		n-tā.	In			-hōng-tā,	
	ma His	elder-son		field-in	was.	House	ne		he-came,		
	5222		20			inri	ikta.		Iı	nshinhai	
_	inkrung			āmrung ā <i>m-rāng</i>			·īt-tā.		Īn-shīn-hai		
	(?) beating			cing			ard.		Servants-of		
			_	J		. 1	z 4:	140	· Nach	ungpa	
inkāt		gkoi.	Āmāj		inshi			ita,		hūm-pā	
en- kat		g - g \bar{o} i.	Ā-mā-	-	in-shir		he-sa	ī-tā,		num-pa nger-brother	
one	-	alled.	Him-t						87.07	450	
ārhing	· ā	höngkīta	,	nēpa		shērhā		āmār		ongjoita	
\bar{a} -rhing	\bar{a} - h	$iong$ - $(k\bar{\imath}r)$	$-tar{a}$,	nē-pā		shërhat	t-tē	āmēlāsā	ho	ng-jōi-tā	
alive	h	e-came-back,		thy-fathe	r	calf		fat		brought	
ātātta.	,	Ārkalta	ւ	in	shūngha		āph	ēmuk.	Ā	māten	
ā-tāt-tā	ī.'	Ā-hāl-te	ī	22	ı-shūng-ā	i	\bar{a} - f	ē-māk.		$m\bar{a}$ -($t\bar{\imath}ng$)	
he-killed.		Ie-angry-bec	ame	. h	ouse-inside		he-v	vent-not.	T	herefore	
apa		pengteng	ā	phē	ātīta.		Āmājū	āmā	ā	itinoi,	
\bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$		(?)	10	-fē	a - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$		$ar{A}$ -mā-j	ū ā-m	ā	ā-tī-nōg,	
his-father		outside		went	he-spoke.		Him-to	he		he-said-back,	
' Gēpā	i. :	nangmā	jānpui	gūn	1	shört	s	hinjōngm	ai	gēti,	
' Gē-pā		ıang-mā	jān-pui	_		$sh\bar{o}t$		n-jong-me		gē-tī,	
'My-fathe		thee	with	year		many		service		I-did,	

hālỏi	angha		shinmaong; shīn-māüng;			ink		nipēmuk, nē-pē-māk,	
transgression	transgression any		committe		kid	on		thou-gavest-not	
malhale		narung	lēru		$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{\bar{u}n}$	naipung	tē	āhōngtā,	
mal-hai-le	$ar{e}$ f	ā-rāng	lē-re	$\bar{a}ng.$	$ar{A}$ - $tar{u}n$	nai-pāng-	tē	\bar{a} - $h\bar{o}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$,	
friends-with		at-to	drin	x•to∙	Now	son-younger		he-came,	
tiinā	nungmā	nēnun		ārenjeng		allakhta,	anj	ūn gang	
$tar{\imath}nar{a}$ formerly	nang-mā thy	<i>nē-nūn</i> property		$ar{a}$ -r $ar{e}$ ng- $ar{a}$		$ar{a}$ - $lar{a}k$ - $tar{a}$, he-took,	(?		
āhekta,	nung	sh	ērhāttē	3 8	āmār	nitāttā.'		Apā	
(?),	nang	$shar{e}$	rhāt-të	ā	nēlāsā	nī-tāt-tā.		$ar{A}$ - $par{a}$	
he-consumed,	thou		calf	1 22	fat	thou-killedst.		His-father	
ātīta,	Bāshal,	nung a	nitin	gēmā	janpui	aomtā,	gēmā	nēnūn	
\bar{a} - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$,	Bā-sāl,	nang ā	nītin	$gar{e}$ - $mar{a}$	jān-pu	\bar{a} - $\bar{o}m$ - $t\bar{a}$,	$gar{e}$ - $mar{a}$	nē-nūn	
he-said,	'Son,		lways	me	with	wast,	. my	property	
ijāmo	āmākaks	nung	ma	nēnūn.	K	ūshī ōm	ung	phurung	
$ar{\imath}$ - $jar{a}$ - $mar{o}$	ā-mā (-?			nē-nūn.			rāng	. fā-rāng	
whatever	that	thy		property.		TIJ	-to	eat-to	
lērung	āsshārung	-	iina		nēshum	oa	ātīta,	attün	
lē-rāng	\bar{a} -s \bar{a} -r \bar{a} ng		īn-ā		nē-shūm-		\bar{a} - $t\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{a}$,	\bar{a} - $t\bar{u}n$	
drink-to	it-good-be-wi	il, for	merly	thy	-younger-br	other	he-died,	now	
āphēnokta;		tiina	ārmai	ngta, a	ttūn	munnökta.	9 5 6		
ā-fē-nōg-tā;		tīn-ā	ā-mān	•	tū n	mān-nōg-tā.			
he-went-back;		formerly	he-lost	•was,	BOM	found-again-was	•		

BETE.

The Bētē tribe is closely connected with Rāngkhōl, and on being, together with this latter tribe, driven out of the Lushai Hills by the Thādos, it also emigrated into North Cachar. Their number in this district is estimated at 630. There are also a few speakers in the Cachar Plains. Short vocabularies have been published by Messrs. Stewart and Soppitt. The Bētē dialect is so closely related to Rāngkhōl and the connected languages that there is probably little reason to regret that it has been impossible to procure any specimens.

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A few remarks on Bētē grammar will show the close connection of this dialect with Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Langrong, etc. There are not sufficient materials for giving a full sketch of the dialect.

The Personal pronouns form their plural by adding the suffix ni; thus, kei- $m\bar{a}$ -ni, we; nang- $m\bar{a}$ -ni, you. Mr. Soppitt has the form \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ -hai, they, with the same suffix as is usual in Rāngkhōl.

Verbs are conjugated in person by means of the pronominal prefixes $k\bar{a}$, I; $n\bar{a}$, thou; \bar{a} , he. The suffix of the past tenses is $t\bar{a}$ or $t\bar{a}k$, and that of the future $r\bar{a}ng$. Thus, $kei\ k\bar{a}\ f\bar{e}$, I go; \bar{a} - $h\bar{o}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, he came; $kei\ f\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, I shall go. Mr. Stewart gives $kei\ f\bar{e}nke$, I shall go, as an instance of the future.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ro, and that of the negative imperative no-ro; thus, $h\bar{o}ng-j\bar{o}\bar{i}-ro$, bring; $f\bar{e}-no-ro$, do not go. The first of two connected imperatives may be replaced by a participle ending in $in-l\bar{a}$, thus, $choin-l\bar{a}$ $f\bar{e}-ro$, carrying go, take away.

The Negative particles are $m\bar{a}k$ and noni; thus, kei $k\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}k$, I I-went-not, kei $k\bar{a}$ - $f\bar{e}$ -no-ning, I will not go.

The vocabulary agrees with the other old Kuki languages.

HALLĀM.

Hallām is spoken in Hill Tipperah and Sylhet. In Sylhet 1,600 individuals were returned as speaking Kuki. A few words which have been translated in different parts of the district seem to show that three dialects, Thādo, Hallām, and Langrong, have been brought together under this denomination. We may, therefore, provisionally put down 533 as belonging to Hallām. To these must be added about 8,000 individuals who were returned as speaking Tipurā. Most of these latter are immigrants from Hill Tipperah and speak Hallām. Their language is mixed up with Aryan words to a greater extent than is the case with the Hallām of Hill Tipperah. We thus arrive at the following total for Hallām:—

	Hill Tip	perah							18,000
TOTAL . 26,533	Sylhet	•			•				8,533
							To	TAL	26,533

I am indebted to Mr. A. Porteous, I.C.S., Deputy Commissioner of Sylhet, for two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases in this language. They have been prepared by Babu Padmanāth Bhaṭṭāchāryya with the aid of an educated Hallām. A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of words and phrases in Hallām have also been received from Hill Tipperah. The two versions of the parable differ in so many points that I have thought it best to print both. The specimen received from Hill Tipperah is, however, carelessly done, and must, accordingly, be used with caution. The list of standard words and phrases printed on pp. 292 and ff. is that received from Sylhet. Where the Hill Tipperah list differs, and where the Sylhet list is wanting, the words of the former are given within parentheses.

The name Hallām may be connected with Mr. Damant's Khelma, which tribe he says lives in North Cachar. The short vocabulary which he publishes agrees with Hallām. The same is the case with the vocabulary of Sakājaib or Shekasip which Mr. Soppitt has published. Sakājaib has been returned as the language of 315 individuals in North Cachar. By adding these 315 speakers of Sakājaib to the estimates given above we arrive at a total of 26,848 for Hallām,

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As far as can be seen from the scanty materials at my disposal, Khelma and Sakājaib are identical with Hallām. According to Mr. Soppitt the Sakājaibs are an off-shoot of the Rāngkhōls, and their languages differ very little. In the few instances

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of difference which he gives, Sakājaib, as far as we can ascertain, agrees with Hallām. And still closer is the correspondence with the few words given by Damant. The word for 'earth' is a good example. This word is, according to Mr. Soppitt, ernēnglē in Rāngkhōl, ra-nēng in Bētē, and phīl in Sakājaib. Phil is also given by Damant, and this word for earth occurs in the third specimen in the form pil. It is, of course, impossible to come to any certain conclusions from materials so insufficient as those at my disposal, but it seems, at least, very probable that Khelma and Sakājaib are nothing else but Hallām.

I am not aware of any other authority dealing with the dialect, and the following sketch of Hallam grammar is based on the specimens given below.

Pronunciation.—There is some inconsistency in the writing of several sounds. Thus, the suffix of the Imperative is, in all specimens, written both $r\hat{a}$ and ro. Often the Hill Tipperah specimen has \hat{a} , where the Sylhet specimen has o; thus, $k\hat{a}m$ and kom, to; am and om, to be, and so forth. Instead of o we sometimes find of or cy in the Sylhet specimens. And in one case the same word is written in all three ways; thus, tha, tho, and thoi, to arise. The sound which is thus written is probably the sound of a in the English word 'all'. The word thai, to be able, to be allowed, is also written thei; the verb sēi, to go, occurs in the forms sēi, sē, sai. The sound is perhaps that in the English word 'day'. \overline{U} and i are interchanged in $m\bar{a}\bar{u}ng$ or $m\bar{a}ing$, not. The sound which is meant is probably \ddot{u} . Sometimes we find two vowels contracted into one; thus, $p\bar{a}n$ for $p\bar{a}$ -in. The form seng in seng- $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$, I will go, as against seyeng- $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$, must perhaps be accounted for in the same manner. The y in seyeng is probably euphonic as is certainly the w in bondo-w- \bar{a} , in the fields. The Sylhet specimens generally use y as the last component of diphthongs; thus, nāy, son. The Hill Tipperah specimen writes ēi, the Sylhet texts ei, etc. Some consonants seem to be silent or very faintly sounded. Thus, the Imperatives of $s\bar{a}k$, to eat; $n\bar{e}k$, to eat; $p\bar{e}k$, to give; $l\bar{a}k$, to take, are written $s\bar{a}$ -ro; $n\bar{e}$ -ro; $p\bar{e}$ -ro; lā-ro. The imperative of hong, to come, is hong-ro; and hō-ro. On the other hand, an initial consonant is sometimes doubled after a vocalic prefix; thus, āppā-rāng, or ā-pā $r\bar{a}ng$, his father to; $\bar{a}ss\bar{a}$, or $\bar{a}-s\bar{a}$, good, and so forth. The consonant j occurs in several words, but seems sometimes to be interchangeable with z, and even with ch. The suffix of past tenses is thus written jei, zei, and chei. A t occurs in a few words, especially in the specimen from Hill Tipperah. Thus, jat to wish. This word is also written jat in the same specimen, and the Sylhet texts always have jot. The t is, therefore, perhaps a quasi-learned writing for t.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral $kh\bar{a}t$, one, is used as an *indefinite* article, while definiteness may be expressed by demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses. Thus, $k\bar{e}l$ \bar{a} -chal $kh\bar{a}t$, a he goat; hi- $m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}phal$, this saddle; \bar{a} hag-tik-in, he came-time-at, at the time when he came; reng nag hag, king's son the.

Nouns.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings. In the case of human beings different words may be used for the two genders. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: $p\bar{a}$ -rul, brother; $s\bar{a}r$ - $n\bar{u}$, sister: $r\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{a}r$, husband; dong- $m\bar{a}$, wife: $p\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, man; $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, woman. But generally gender is distinguished by means of suffixes. The male suffixes which occur are $p\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, the female ones are $n\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$. Thus, $n\bar{a}i$, younger brother or sister; $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$, brother; $n\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{u}$, sister:

 $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, boy, son; $n\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, girl, daughter. When no ambiguity arises, the gender is not indicated. Thus, $n\bar{a}i$ or $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, child or son. In the case of animals the suffixes are \bar{a} -chal, male, and \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, female. The Hill Tipperah list has $p\bar{u}i$ instead of \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ as a female suffix. Thus, $s\bar{a}$ -kor \bar{a} -chal, a horse; $s\bar{a}$ -kor \bar{a} - $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ (or $p\bar{u}i$), a mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The suffix $ng\bar{a}i$ or $ng\bar{a}i$ - $h\bar{a}$ is used when it is necessary to mark the plural. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$, or $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ - $h\bar{a}$, fathers. In the Hill Tipperah specimen we twice find the form \bar{e} - $ng\bar{a}i$; thus, $s\bar{u}ak$ - $k\hat{u}r$ - \bar{e} - $ng\bar{a}i$, servants. In $\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{u}ak$ - \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}i$ $k\hat{a}m$ - \bar{a} , his servants to, the plural suffix is apparently added to the suffix \bar{a} . In $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ in- \bar{a} \bar{i} - $t\bar{u}k$ - $m\hat{a}$ $ch\bar{a}kar$, my father's house-in how-many servants, the plural suffix is added to the genitive instead of the governing noun. In $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ -in \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$ $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}k$ - $ng\bar{a}i$, anyone him-to gave-not, the plural suffix is added to the verb, instead of the subject. In a similar way we find $h\bar{a}$ -pen- \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}k$ - $ng\bar{a}i$, more-not-they, no persons else. In hi- $m\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}$ -hi, all these things, $ng\bar{a}$ is substituted for $ng\bar{a}i$, and the suffix is written $nag\bar{a}i$ in $k\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}l$ - $nag\bar{a}i$ - $bil\bar{a}$, my-friends with.

Case.—The Nominative does not take any suffix. Thus, nā rā-ming ī-má? thy name what? The suffix in denoting the agent may be added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, pā-sāl khāt-in nāy in-ni-kā ā nei, man one sons two he had. But in is often omitted; thus, reng sā-nū ā-mā-hā ā dán, the king's daughter him she kept. And in the Hill Tipperah list we even find this suffix added to the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, kei-nin kan kāl, we go. This is, however, certainly a blunder. The Accusative is usually formed without any suffix. But sometimes the postposition rang is added. Thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$ bondo- \bar{a} \bar{a} $t\bar{i}r$, him fields-to he sent. The suffix le is used in forming a kind of Instrumental. Thus, sa-vay-le von in-bit-rang, to fill his stomach with husks; tui-le, with water; rui-le with ropes. The Dative is formed in the same way as the accusative. The suffix of the Ablative is tātā; thus, pā in-khāt tātā, from a father. The Genitive may be expressed by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing noun. Thus, nãi chẳng, the son's word; sākor ngoi sã-phal, horse white-of saddle. But the governed noun may also be repeated by means of a pronominal prefix. Thus, kotoāl \bar{a} $n\bar{a}y$, the Kotwal his son. Compare Pronouns, below. This form of the genitive may also be used before postpositions. Thus, kumārī ā-kom, the princess her-to. The suffixes of the Locative are \bar{a} and in; thus, in- \bar{a} , in the house; tik-in, at the time. The suffix in also denotes the agent. See above. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are: bilā, with; ding-in, for — sake; i-sunin, against; kál-ā and kaum-ā, near; kám or kom, to; leï-le, with; mā-ton-ā, before; neng-ā, to; nūk-ā, behind, after; rāng-in, for — sake; rōal-in, together with; roy-hā, among; tēā, in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are placed after the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are usually added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ -sāl khāt āssā-kom, man one good-to. The particle of Comparison is $n\bar{e}k$ -in or $n\bar{e}k$ -ā, placed after the compared word. The adjective remains in the positive. Thus, \bar{a} -mā $n\bar{e}k$ -in āssā, that than good; ān-reng-in $n\bar{e}k$ -ā ān-sang, all than high; ān-reng-in $n\bar{e}k$ -ā āssā $r\bar{a}$ -vā, all than good cloth, the best cloth. The last instance seems to show that the qualified noun follows the adjective when definiteness should be expressed. The corresponding passage in the Hill Tipperah specimen runs in-rāng mi $n\bar{e}k$ -in \bar{a} -sā $p\bar{u}$ an, quickly all than

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good cloth. Mi is doubtful, and we ought perhaps to correct to $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in instead of in-rang-mi. The superlative may also be expressed by adding uol or $t\bar{a}k$ to the positive. Thus, $\bar{a}ss\bar{a}\ uol$, best; \bar{a} -nay \bar{a} -chin-tak, his son the youngest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The suffix $k\bar{a}$ may be added, apparently without altering the meaning. Thus, $in\text{-}kh\bar{a}t$ and $in\text{-}kh\bar{a}t\text{-}k\bar{a}$, one. In a similar way we also find $p\bar{a}$ $in\text{-}kh\bar{a}t\text{-}\bar{a}$, a father, etc. The prefix in may be dropped; thus, $kh\bar{a}t$, one. It is probably a generic prefix; but I am not able to state any rule for its use. The place of the numerals is usually after, but occasionally also before, the noun they qualify.

Pronouns.—The following are the personal pronouns:—

Singular.

kei-mā, kei, I.

kei-mā, kā, my.

kei-mā-tā, kā-tā, mine.

nang-mā, nang, thou.

nang-mā, nā, thy.

nang-mā-tā, nā-tā, thine.

 \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, \bar{a} -ni, $\bar{a}n$, he, she, it. \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, \bar{a} -ni, $\bar{a}n$, \bar{a} , his, her, its. \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$, \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$, \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$, \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$, his, hers, its.

Plural.

kei-mā-ni, kei-ni, we.

kān, our.

kei-ni kān-tā, ours.

nang-mā-ni, nang-ni-ngāi, you.

nān, your.

nang-mā-ni-tā, nang-ni-tā, nān-tā,

yours.

ān-mā-ni, ān-ni-ngāi, they.

ān, their.

ān-mā-ni-tā, ān-ni-ngāi-ān-tā, ān
tā, theirs.

The short forms $k\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}n$; $n\bar{a}$, $n\bar{a}n$; \bar{a} , $\bar{a}n$, are also used as pronominal prefixes with verbs; see below. They are in general use as possessive pronouns before nouns, and before postpositions. They may be preceded by the fuller forms; thus, $kei\text{-}m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$, my, lit., I my; nang $n\bar{a}$, thy, etc. Compare Genitive, above. The ordinary case suffixes and postpositions may be added to the pronouns. Often also the demonstrative pronouns $h\bar{a}$ and hi are added to other pronouns, apparently without much altering the meaning. Thus, $kei\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}h\bar{a}$ and $kei\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}hi$, I. The demonstrative pronoun $m\bar{a}$, that, which is the last component in pronouns such as $kei\text{-}m\bar{a}$, I, is also used alone as a personal pronoun in the same meaning as $\bar{a}\text{-}m\bar{a}$, he. The personal pronoun of the third person, on the other hand, is also used as a demonstrative pronoun.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:— $h\bar{a}$, hi, hi- $m\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}$ -hi, this; $m\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$, sa- $m\bar{a}$, sá—sá, that; hi- $m\bar{a}$ -ngā-hi, these. $M\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ -hi is translated 'this all.' The $k\bar{a}$ is possibly the same $k\bar{a}$ which may be added to numerals. See above. $H\bar{a}$, this, is occasionally written $kh\bar{a}$, after k; thus, tik- $kh\bar{a}n$, time-this-at.

There is no Relative pronoun. Demonstrative pronouns, participles, and interrogative pronouns are used to express relativity. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}i$ $m\bar{a}-hi$ $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng-uir\bar{e}-\bar{e}-ng\bar{a}i$ $r\bar{o}al$ -in nang-mā $n\bar{e}in\bar{u}n$ - $k\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}k$ -jai- $t\bar{a}$ \bar{a} háng-tik-in mā-tik-khān, thy son this harlots with thy property ate-up he coming-time-at that-time-at; $v\hat{a}k$ $s\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}v\bar{a}i$, pigs eaten husks, the husks which the pigs ate; i- $t\bar{u}k$ - $m\hat{a}$ nei- $n\bar{u}n$ \bar{a} keng $h\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{u}k$ - $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}$ nei- $p\bar{e}k$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, howmuch goods it encloses? so-much you give will, etc.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:—tū or tū-mā, who? ī-mā, what? ī-tūk-mā, how much, how many? hā-ong-mā or ī-rāng-mā, why? Thus, tū-nāi mā, whose son? tū kom-ātā mā, whom from? nang-in ī-mā thâng-in, you what do-will?

The numeral in- $kh\bar{a}t$, one, used as an $Indefinite\ pronoun$, means a 'certain' and $kh\bar{a}t$ -lo, any-one. Other indefinite pronouns are formed from the same stems as the interrogative pronouns, by substituting $t\bar{e}$ for the interrogative particle $m\bar{a}$. Thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ or $t\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{e}$ - $kh\bar{a}m$, anyone; $\bar{\iota}$ - $t\bar{e}$, anything. As indefinite pronouns we may also note \bar{a} -reng-in, all; $j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ and $jes\bar{a}$, whatever. Besides \bar{a} -reng-in we also find $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in in $\bar{a}n$ -reng-in $n\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} $\bar{a}ss\bar{a}$, all than good. The two forms are perhaps distinguished as in Lushēi, where \bar{a} - $z\bar{a}$ -in, all, is the neuter form, while an- $z\bar{a}$ -in is used of human beings.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal pre-These are as follows: $-k\bar{a}$, I, $k\bar{a}n$, we; $n\bar{a}$, thou, $n\bar{a}n$, you; \bar{a} , he, she, it, $\bar{a}n$, they. The personal pronouns in the fuller form may precede; thus, kei- $m\bar{a}$ $k\bar{a}$ om, or $k\bar{a}$ om, I am. Compare the use of the same prefixes as possessive pronouns, above. The pronominal prefixes are sometimes dropped, thus often in the imperative mood, but also where there seems to be no reason for omitting them. The prefix \bar{a} is sometimes used in the same way as in Rangkhol; thus, nang-in ā-thā, thou didst. Regarding the position of these prefixes in the future tense, see below. In a few places they have a slightly different form. Thus, in the translation of the Parable received from Sylhet we find khei el-maing, I transgressed not. Note the aspirated form khei. In the plural an \tilde{a} is sometimes added to the prefixes; thus, kei-ni kān-ā ni, we were. The Hill Tipperah list also records the prefixes kāin, nāin, and ān-in in the plural; thus, ān-mā-ni ān-in sē-tā, they went. The interrogative pronoun i-tūk-má, how many, seems to be combined with the singular prefix. Thus, $\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{u}k$ - $m\hat{a}$ $n\bar{a}i$ \bar{a} om; how many sons are there? But $k\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{a}i$ in- \bar{a} ī-tūk-mâ chākar sāk-nei-nūn ān mān, my father's house-in how-many servants food they get? In this case the plural seem to be due to the use of the plural suffix ngāi.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, $kei\ k\bar{a}\ om$, I am; $\bar{a}\ t\bar{\imath}$, he said; $kei\ k\bar{a}\ jem$, I have, or had, beaten. In one place $h\bar{a}$, this, is added; thus, \bar{a} - $s\bar{e}$ - $h\bar{a}$, he went.

A Present Definite and Imperfect seems to be formed by prefixing $l\bar{a}$ and suffixing $b\bar{a}ng$; thus, $kei\ k\bar{a}\ l\bar{a}$ -jem- $b\bar{a}ng$, I am, or was, beating. Another form, with a suffix en seems to occur in $\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ chong-en, there were talking.

The suffix of Past tenses is $t\bar{a}$. Thus, $\bar{a} p\bar{a} k\bar{a}m \bar{a} t\bar{\imath} t\bar{a}$, his father to he said. The most common way to form the past tenses, however, is to add the word $j\bar{e}i$, also written zei, chei, and $j\bar{e}$. Thus, $kei k\bar{a} s\bar{e} \cdot j\bar{e}i$, I went. This $j\bar{e}i$ is identical with the verb jai, Rāngkhōl $j\bar{o}i$, to finish, which is used in a similar way. In the Hill Tipperah list we find a past tense formed by adding the suffix $r\bar{a}ng$; thus, kei- $m\bar{a}n k\bar{a} jem$ - $r\bar{a}ng$, I struck. But this is probably a mistake, $r\bar{a}ng$ being one of the suffixes used in forming the future. See below.

The usual suffix of the Future is $t\bar{\imath}$. The pronominal prefixes are inserted between the root and the suffix. This form is therefore a compound verb, the last part perhaps being the verb $t\bar{\imath}$, to say. Thus, $in\text{-}thai\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$, arise I will; $reye\text{-}p\bar{a}k\text{-}\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$, know-all-hewill. The principal verb often takes the termination n or ng; thus, $t\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$, say-I-will; $se\text{-}yen\text{-}k\bar{a}\text{-}t\bar{\imath}$, I will go. We may compare the Khongzai imperative in in, and the infinitive of purpose which that language forms by combining the imperative with the participle of ti, to say; thus, $w\bar{\imath}na\text{-}ching\text{-}in$ $ka\text{-}ti\text{-}l\bar{e}$, pigs tend, having said, in order to tend pigs. The first part of this periphrastic future is therefore probably an imperative or a verbal noun. Other suffixes used in forming the future are ding and $r\bar{\imath}ng$, both

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also employed as postpositions with the meaning 'to, for the sake of.' Thus, kei-nin kān jem-ding, we shall strike; nā nei-pēk-rāng, thou wilt give. The last form seems to be used as a mild form of the imperative. Compare also infinitive, below. In nang-in ī-mā thāngin, thou what do-wilt? the future thāng-in seems to be formed with the suffix in. The corresponding form in the first person is thāng-kā-tī, I shall do.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ro or rå, plural roi. In the specimen received from Hill Tipperah rå is also used in the plural. Thus, $p\bar{e}$ -rå, give; en-roi, see you. In the first person plural the suffix rei seems to be used; thus $th\hat{a}$ -sē-rei, arise go let us. The ei in rei seems to mean 'together, mutually.' Thus, ei-chong, conversation (chong, reply); bu-ei-nek-ei-sāk-ā in-nūi-in-dāi-ei-ti-ui, food-together-eating-together-eating gladmerry-together-let-us-be. This last form, ending in ei-ti-ui, seems to be another way of expressing the imperative of the first person plural, apparently derived from the future. Compare the periphrastic future.

The suffixes of the Infinitive are $n\bar{a}$ and $r\bar{a}ng$. Both may be combined; thus, $n\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$. The suffix $n\bar{a}$ seems to form the true infinitive or verbal noun; thus, $s\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$, to eat, food. The suffix $r\bar{a}ng$, or $r\bar{a}ng$ -in is probably the suffix of the infinitive of purpose; thus, \bar{a} - $m\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ -in $b\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{c}k$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ mi phun-koi \bar{a} that, therefore food-eating-for men invitation he made. The pronominal prefixes may be added before this infinitive; thus, kei $k\bar{a}$ jem- $r\bar{a}ng$ -in \bar{a} om, I my beating-for it is, I should beat. This combination of the infinitive in $r\bar{a}ng$ with the verb om, to be, or similar verbs, seems to be frequent. Thus, kei $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}y$ $n\bar{a}$ nei- $t\bar{i}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ bis $\bar{a}r$ hapen ni- $m\bar{a}ing$, me your son you calling-for fit more is-not; $k\bar{a}$ van $\bar{a}n$ - $ch\bar{a}m$ -in \bar{a} -th \bar{i} - $r\bar{a}ng$ \bar{a} -ni-j \bar{e} , my stomach hunger-in dying-for it-has-become, it is certain that I shall die from hunger. In this manner it is also possible to account for the words jesa \bar{a} -th \bar{a} - $r\bar{a}ng$ $n\bar{a}$ -ni- $t\bar{t}$, whatever doing-for you-to-be-say, whatever you say is to be done. The root alone, without any suffix, may also be used as a verbal noun. Thus, in-nui-in-day, to be merry.

Participles.—The root tenses, where no suffix is added, and the verbal noun may be considered as adverbial or relative participles when they qualify a following noun. Thus, ā háng-tik-in, he coming-time-at. Another Adverbial participle is formed by adding the suffix in, probably identical with the locative suffix. Thus, sāk-in, eating. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes $l\bar{a}$, \bar{a} , and le. There are only two instances of a participle ending in $l\bar{a}$, and both are connected with an imperative. In the first, where the imperative is of the second person singular, an i is inserted before $l\bar{a}$; in the second instance the imperative is in the second person plural, and ung is inserted. I and ung are probably pronominal infixes denoting the person which the participle applies to. Thus, sēm-i-lā nā-pē-rā, dividing give; ra-vā hong-choy-lilip-ung-lā hang-mān-silroi, cloth here-bringing-immediately-you put-on-let. The suffix \bar{a} is probably identical with the locative suffix. It may be added to all tenses. Thus, $l\bar{a}k$ - $v\bar{e}i$ - \bar{a} \bar{a} $\ell\bar{a}m$ - $\ell\bar{a}$, faraway he being ; \bar{a} $th\bar{i}$ - $j\bar{e}i$ - \bar{a} \bar{a} $d\bar{a}m$ - $j\bar{e}i$, he died-having he alive came ; kei-hi in-thoi- $k\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{i}$ ā kā-pā kom seyeng-kā-tī, I arise-will-and my father to go-I-will. The suffix le, perhaps identical with the postposition le, with, is used in a similar way. Thus, nang nā thī-le kei seyeng-kā-tī, you you dying I go-I-will; pil kāng vor-kā-tī-le, earthen clods throw-I-will-and.

There is no Passive voice. 'I am beaten' is expressed by 'he beats me'; thus, $kei\ \bar{a}n$ $\bar{a}\ jem$, me he he beats; $kei\ na-jem-\bar{a}-t\bar{\imath}$, me beat he will; $\bar{a}n\ m\bar{a}ng-j\bar{e}i-\bar{a}\ \bar{a}\ m\bar{u}-j\bar{e}i$, he lost-being he was-found-again.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes and by adding other words to medify the meaning. Several prefixes are in use. Háng or hong denotes motion towards the speaker. As a verb hong or háng means to come. Thus, hong-choy, to bring here. The prefix $k\bar{a}$ seems to have an inchoative sense; thus, $k\bar{a}$ -riet, he began to bear. Probably also $k\bar{a}$ -rāi-āsān (they) began to make merry. The prefix $l\bar{a}$ is used in the present definite; see above. It also occurs in $l\bar{a}$ -siē-tyā-rō, keep (me), and seems to convey the sense of continuity. The prefix $m\bar{a}n$ (meaning 'to get') is used to form causatives, thus, riet, to hear, $m\bar{a}n$ -riet, to inform; choy, to take, $m\bar{a}n$ -choy, to give. $V\bar{a}$ seems to denote motion towards; thus, \bar{a} $v\bar{a}$ -kol-ā, he went and embraced; \bar{a} $v\bar{a}$ -tī, he went and said.

The verbs $p\bar{e}k$ to give and pui, probably corresponding to Lushēi pui to help, to assist, are added to a verb in order to form a kind of causatives. Thus, nei, to have; $ne\bar{i}$ - $p\bar{e}k$, to give; $\bar{a}n$ riet-pui, he revealed himself, from riet, hear, know. Desideratives may be formed by adding $j\bar{a}t$ or jot, wish; thus, $l\bar{u}t$ - $j\bar{a}t$ - $m\bar{a}k$, to enter wished not. The verb thei means 'to be able,' 'to be allowed.' Thus, kei $k\bar{a}$ om-thei, I may be. Sometimes it is difficult to see the special meaning conveyed by the compound. Thus, $k\bar{a}l$, to go; choy, to take, to bring; $k\bar{a}l$ -choy, to walk; $k\bar{a}l$ -choy, I have walked. The first part of a compound generally takes no suffix, and must probably be considered as a verbal noun. Other words added to form compounds are $d\bar{e}n$, to be about; jai, to complete; ok, exceedingly, much; $p\bar{a}k$, all; rek, again; sir, again, etc.

The Negative particles are māk, māūng, or māing. Thus, pē-māk, gave not; ját-māūng, wishing not, against; rē-māing, knows not. Another negative lai seems to occur in ám-sā-lai-sāk-sā-lai, being-good-not-eating-good-not, in evil ways.

The Interrogative particle is ma. See Interrogative pronouns, above.

I have mentioned above that several words have been borrowed from Aryan languages. Such are bisār, proper, fit; chākar, servant; dese, country; gāddā, ass; jodi, if; kharach, spend; kumārī, princess; māyā, compassion; rākhāl, shepherd; ruppāi, silver, etc. All these occur in the texts received from Sylhet, while the Hill Tipperah specimen seems to be relatively free from this admixture.

[No. 16.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP,

HALLAM.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERAH.)

In-khāt-dak-ā nāi-pāsāl in-ni-kā ā-nēi. Mi-lāi-tāk nāi-pāng pā-kâm One-man 80ns two he-had. Them-among-from younger-son father-to 'Kā-pā, nēi-nūn-nēi jā-kā ā-ril, kei mū-dâr-ā sēm-i-lā nā-pē-râ.' Nāi he-said, 'My-father, property whatever I get-shall dividing thou-give.' Son's chang ā-riēt-ā A-sin-sik-in ā-sēm-ā pēk-jēi. nūk-ā nāi-pāng pā-sāl word he-hearing he-dividing gave. Short-time after son malenēi-nūn-kā ā-sai-pāk khuā ā-lāk-nā ā-sēi-jēi. Mā-hān âm-sā-lai-sāk-sā-lai property he-took-all villagefar-to he-went. There in-evil-ways ā-pāi-jēi. Nēi-nūn-kā pāi-jai-nūk-ā ān khuā bū-ngēi-ā mā he-squandered. Goods spent-all-after that village-in food-hunger-in ān-tāk-jēi. Μā lāi hān mā ā-mā rām-mūēl-ā in-khāt-kā in-ā in-want-fell. That time that-in he thatcountry-in one-person's house-in ā-sēi-jēi. Sâ mi sâ. ān lai-ā vâk hâl-nā-rāng tīr-tā. Nūk-ā That man he-went. thathisfields-in pigsgrazing-for sent. Afterwards. vâk sāk-nā sā-vāi sāk-in vân khập-nā lung ā-âm. Chūn tū-tē-khâm pigs eaten husks eating belly to-fill wishing he-was. Butanyone-even pē-māk. Mâng-nūk-in ā-tī, 'Kā-pā sūak-kar-ē-ngāi ānā-tām, Coming-to-senses-again he-said, 'My-father's servants they-many-are, sāk-nā nēik-in ā-tām ā-mū, kā-vân-ān-chām-in ā-thī-rāng ā-ni-jē; food than more is-got, my-stomach-hunger-in die-to it-is-indeed; in-thai-kā-tī kā-pā-kâm sēn-kā-tī, mā-kâm tīng-kā-tī, "Kā-pā, kei-mā my-father-to go-I-will, arise-I-will him-to say-I-will, " My-father, I mārsiā jåt-mäung nä-kåm-reng kāsēr kā-thō-jēi, kei-mā ā-tūn-chu nā-nāi heaven against thee-to sin I-committed. I now thy-son nē-tī-ā mū-thāi-māk, kei-mā nang-mā sūak-kar āng-in lā-siē-tyā-rō." Nūk-ā thou-calling see-can-not, me thyservantlike keep." Afterwards ā-thâ-in ā-ni pā kâm ā-sai-jēi. Chūn lāk-vēi-ā ā-âm-ā ā-pān he-arising hisfather to he-went. But distance-at he-being his-father ā-mū-jēi, phām-jēi-ā ā-tān ā-sēi ā-bing-ā ā-kuā ā-bbing ā-tūm. he-saw, pitied-having he-ran he-went his-neck-on he-embracing his-neck he-kissed. ā-ppā-rāng ā-tī. 'Kā-pā, kei-mā mārsiā ját-maung His-son this his-father-to he-said, ' My-father, I heaven against

nā-kâm-rēng ā-sēr kā thō-jēi, kei-mā ā-tūn-chu nā-nāi nē-tī-ā mū-thāi-māk.' I committed, sinthy-son thou-calling Ι now see-may-not.' Chūn ā-mā sūak-ā-ngāi kâm-ā ā-tī. 'In-rang mi . nēk-in ā-sā pūan But his servants tohe-said, ' Quickly all(?) than goodclothā-mān sil-râ, hâng-châ-in ā-mā kūt-ā kūt-sā-bi lē phēē-ā jūtā here-bringing himput-on, hishand-on hand-ring and foot-on shoes nā-mān-kūl-râ, kān nēk-ā kā-rāi-āsān; hā-lāi-rēng-hān kei-mā hi-lē cause-to-put-on, we eating merry-make; this-reason-this-for mythis kā-nāi ā-thī-jēi-ā, ā-dām-jēi; ān māng-jēi-ā, ā-mū-jēi. my-son he-died-having, he-alive-became; he lost-having-been, he-found-was.' Afterwards kāmāl-ā kā-rāi-ā-sān. friends-with merry-made.

Hā-nūk ā-nāi ū-liēn lai-ā ā-âm. Ā-hâng-in kâmā hâng-in inAnd his-son elder field-in he-wds. He-coming house near coming lām-nā khâng-chūk-nā kā-riēt. Mā. tik hān kā-sūak khāt-ā ā-kai-ā aancing drum-beating heard. That that-in servant time one he-calling ā-rkēl, 'Mā-kā-hi ī-mâ?' Ā-mā ā-nēng-ā tī-tā, ' Nā-nāi-pā hâng-jēi he-asked, 'This-all what?' Hehim-to said, 'Thy-younger-brother came, nā-pān sāk-nā-rāng ā-būm-jēi, hā lāi-rēng ā-mā ā-dām-in ā-mū-jēi.' thy-father eating-for he-prepared, this reason him alivehe-found.' Chūn ā-mā ā-tāk-si sung-a lūt-jāt-māk. Nūk-ā ā-pā ā-pūā Buthe-got-angry inside to-enter-wished-not. Then his-father outsidehâng-in ā-mā-lē ā-mān-chu-jēi. Chūn ā-châng ān khir ā-pā kâm ā-tī-tā, coming him-with he-consoled. But he-answered he back his-father to he-said, 'Ēn-râ. küm hā-tē-nā kei-mā nang-mā būl tīr-ā nā-chang tik-tik-khâm ' Lo, . years these-many Ithy service doing thy-word time-time-even sē-lâ-māk. ā-ni-khâm-in nang-mā-khâm tik-tik-khâm-in kei-mā-rāng-in transgressed-not, that-even-in thou-even time-time-even-at me-for kēl-tē khāt-kâm pē-māk. kā-kā-māl-pā-lē kā-rai-āsān. Chūn nā-cāi goat-young one-even gavest-not, my-friends-with merry-make. Butthy-son mā-hi nū-pāng-ui-rē-ēngāi rōal-in nang-mā nēi-nūn-kā sāk-jai-tā, ā-hâng-tik-in harlots joining thy propertyate-all, he-coming-time-at mā-tik-khān nang-mā ā-mā ding-in sāk-nā-rāng ā-būm-jēi.' Chūn ā-mā that-time-that-at thouhissake-for eating-for preparedst.' Butān-ni-kâm ā-ril-jēi, 'Kā-nāi, nang-mā kei-mā bilā nin-tin-ā âm, kei-mā ' My-son, him-near he-said. thou me withalways art. mynēi-nūn jā-kā ā-rēng-in nā-tā. Chūn kā-rāi-āsān-nā in-dai-nā property whatever allmerry-making joyful-being proper thine. But ā-chāng-jēi, hā-lāi-rēng nang-mā nā-nāi-pā hi ā-thi-jēi-ā, it-became, this-reason thythy-younger-brother this he-died-having, ā-dām-sir-jēi; ān māng-jēi-ā, mū-sir-jēi.' he-alive-again-was; he lost-having-been, found-again-was.'

[No. 17.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

HALLĀM.

SPECIMEN II.

(SYLHET.)

(A. Porteous, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

Nāy-pāng-pu-hā ā-pā-rāng ā-nei. āng-hin in-ni-kā Pā-sāl khāt-in nāy he-had. Son-younger-that his-father-to thustwosons Man one ā-chuk-dor kei nā-pē-rō. bisār-in kā-bātā 'Kā-pā, ā-tī, it-falls-as me give.' ' My-father, property-in my-share he-said. ā-mā-in ā-ni-zā ā-nei-nūn ān-ni-ngāi-royhā ā-sēm-ā Hā-tūk-reng-hān $them ext{-}two ext{-}between$ he-dividing his-own his-property That-time-that-at he āsot-ngoi-le nāy-pāng-pu-hā ā-reng-in ā-nei-nun ā-choy-ā Hā-nūk-chu ā-pēk. short-after son-younger-that his-property he-taking allhe-gave. And ā-sē. ā-mā-hān badmāsi ā-tho-wā Hā-nūk-chu ā-lāk rām-mōl-ā licentiousness he-went. And hehe-doing far country-to ā-chāng-luk-ā kharach Hā-nūk-chu ā-reng-in ā-var-pāk. ā-nei-nūn And allspent it-being-entirely he-spent-away. his-belongings von-chām ānāchul. Hā-mūk-chu ā-mā rām-mōl-hān ā-chālāk-in ā-sē-lē Then was. country-in highly scarcity thatit-went-having ā-mā-hā ā-mā rām-mol-ā in-khāt Hā-nūk-chu ā-sāk-rāng āntāk-zei. ā-mā thatcountry-in one Then hedifficult-was. eating-for his rākhāl-in ā-mā-rāng-hā vok hā-nūk-chu ā-mā-pā-in ā-vā-om; kom tending him pigsthat-man he-went-stayed; and withisāk sā-vāy-le ā-mā-tāk-ā vok Hā-nūk-chu ā-tīr. bondo-ā ā-ni-zā husks-with pigsfoodAnd that-place-at he-sent. fields-in his-own ā-mā-rāng-hā tū-tē-in imotile-chu in-bit-rang ā-chālāk-in ā-jot, von anybodyhim-to but he-wished, highly belly fill-to 'Kā-pā-ngāi in-ā ā-mā-hān ā-tī, ā-sing-le Ā-nūk-le pē-māk-ngāi. ' My-father's house-in Afterwards he-awakening he-said, he gave-not. imotile-chu kei-mā-hi ān-mān, sāk-nei-nūn ā-tām-pā-in chākar ī-tūk-mâ butΙ food-things they-get, servants to-excess how-many kā-pā-kom in-thoi-kā-tī-ā in-chām-in kā-thī. Kei-hi hi-mā-hin von I arise-I-will-and my-father-to I-die. belly hunger-with here kei-hi ra-vān "Kā-pā, tīng-kā-tī, seyeng-kā-tī hā-nūk-chu ā-mā-rāng " My-father, Ι heaven say-I-will, go-I-will and him-to nā-nei-tī-rāng nā-nāy kā-thâ. Kei hā-nūk-chu nā-mā-ton-ā pāp i-sun-in thy-calling-for Mе thy-son I-did. thee-before sinandagainst

bisār hāpen kei-mā-hi ni-maing; nā-chākar-āng-in nā-dân-ro.", Ā-nūk-le fit moreis-not: me thy-servant-like keep." But ā-lāk-pā ā-om-ka-kār-in pā-in ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-mū-ā māyā vā-thâ, far he-was-when hisfather him he-seeing compassion made. hā-nūk-chu ā-tān-ā ā-ring-ā ā-vā-kol-ā ā-bieng ā-tūm. Hā-nūk-chu and he-running his-neck-on he-embracing his-neck he-kissed. And ā-nāy-in ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-tī, 'Kā-pā, kei-hi ra-vān i-sun-in hā-nūk-chu his-son him-to he-said. ' My-father, I heaven against and nā-mā-ton-ā pāp kā-thâ, hā-nūk-chu nā-nāy nā-nei-tī-rāng bisār hāpen thee-before sinI-did, and thy-son thy-calling-for moreni-maing.' Ā-nūk-chu ā-pā-in chā-kar-ngāi-rāng-hā 'An-reng-in ā-tī. is-not. Buthis-father servants-to he-said, 'All nēk-ā $\bar{\mathbf{a}}ss\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ hong-choy-lilip-ung-lā ra-vâ hang-man-sil-roi, ā-kūt-ā thangoodclothes here-bringing-immediately-you cause-to-dress, his-hand-on kūt-sābi hā-nūk-chu ā-kē-ā jotā mān-bun-roi, hā-nūk-chu bū-ei-nēk-ei-sāk-ā hand-ring and his-foot-on shoe put-on, andfood-eating in-nui-in-day-ei-tī-ui. hā-ong-manā hi-mā kā-nāy ā-thī-ā ā-sē-hā, ā-tūn-chu merry-glad-let-us-be, why-not (because) this my-son he-dying he-went. now ā-dām-rek-zei; ān māng-piel-hā, ā-tūn-chu ān-mān-rēk-zei. Ā-nūk-le he-alive-again-was; lost-was, henow found-again-has-been. Then ān-ni-ngāi-hā in-nui-in-day ān-phut. they merry-glad-to-be they-began.

Ā-mā-lāi-tāk-hān ā-mā ā-nāy ūlien-pā bondo-wā ā-om. Ā-nūk-le ā-mā-hā That-time-that-at his his-son elder field-in he-was. Then he ā-hong-ā-hong-ā in-kâl-ā ā-hong-dēn-le ā-lām-lā-thâ-ā-ra-sā ā-riet. he-coming-he-coming house-near he-to-come-about-being dancing-singing-of-sound he-heard. A-mā-reng-hān in-khāt-ā chākar ā-koi-ā ā-rā-kel, 'Hi-mā-ngā-hi ī-mâ?' That-time-at one servant he-calling he-enquired, ' This-all what? Ā-mā-hān ā-mān-dik, 'Nā-nāy-pā ā-hong, hā-nūk-chu nā-pā He he-informed, 'Thy-younger-brother he-came. andthy-father ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-hoi-riem-in ā-mān-jei, ā-mā-rāng-in bū-nēk-rāng mi himwholesome-state-in he-recovered, this-sake-for food-eat-to people phun-koi ā-thâ.' Āmā-sik-hān ā-mā-hā ā-tāk-ā-mān-si-ā sung-ā seye-rang invitation he-made. This-on he he-angry-getting inside go-to jot-māk; ā-mā-reng-hān ā-pā peyenā ā-hong-ā ā-mà theyem. Ā-nūk-chu wished-not; this-at his-father outside he-coming him coaxed. Butā-mā ā-chong-ā ā-pā-rāng ā-tī, 'En-râ, kei-mā hi-tūk kūn-hin his-father-to he-said, he-replying Lo, I so-many years-these-in kā-chang, nā-chākar vei-khāt-lo nā-chang khei-el-maing. hān-lo nang-in thy-servant I-am, time-any thy-word I-disobeyed-not, yet thou kāmāl-nagāi-bilā in-nu-in-dāy-nā-rāng vei-khāt-lo in-khāt kel-te nā-pē-māk-chei friends-with merriment-for time-any onekidthou-gavest-not,

imotile-chu hi-mā nā-nāy nā-nei-nūn ā-choi-ā \mathbf{nati} ā-vā-sāk ā-vā-pāi, butthisthy-son thy-property harlots he-taking he-enjoyed he-wasted, ā-mā ā-hong ā-tung-le nang-in ā-mā-rāng-in bū-nēk-rāng mi phun-koi he he-came he-arriving thou his-sake-for food-eat-to people invitation ā-thâ.' Ā-mā-sik-hān ā-pā-in ā-mā-rāng-hā ā-tī, 'Kā-nāy, kūm-pā-lëen-tōng madest.' his-father That-on him-to he-said, 'My-son, year-all-through kā-bilā nā-om. hā-nūk-chu kā-nei-nūn-kā nā-tā korong, ā-mūk-chu kei-ni me-with thou-art, and my-property thine (?), butkān-rāy-āsān-ā in-ni-in-dāy-rāng-in ā-om, hā-ong-manā, hi-mā nā-nāy-pā we-joyous-becoming merriment-for it-is, why-not? this thy-younger-brother ā-thī-ā ā-sē-hā, ā-dām-rek-jei; ā-tūn-chu ān māng-piel-hā, ā-tūn-chu he-dying he-went, now he-revived-again; he lost-was, now ān-mān-rek-jei.' found-again-has-been.'

[No. 18.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

HALLÄM.

SPECIMEN III.

(SYLHET.)

(A. Porteous, Esq., I.C.S., 1900.)

In-khāt reng-in ā-mā ā-nāy ā-chin-tāk-rāng ā-tī, 'Kei kā-thī-tik · 1 One king his his-son youngest-to he-said, I-dying-time nāy-in ī-mâ thâng-in? Reng ā-tī, 'Nang nā-thī-le nang-in do-wilt?" . Thou King's what sonhe-said, thou-dying thou seyeng-kā-tī, hā-nūk-chu in-ā tīng-kā-tī āng-hin: "Kei in-khāt reng say-I-will king's house-to go-I-will, andthus: one i-te re-maing, imotile-chu iesa ā-thâ-rāng nā-ni-tī ā-mā-hā ā-mâ idiot-am anything know-not, butwhatever do-to thou-sayest that ā-thâ. thâng-kā-tī." ā-mā-in āng-hān Ā-mā-tāk-ā Reng ā-thī-le reng do-I-shall." thus he-did. That-place-at King he-dying ћe king's ā-dân. sā-nū ā-mā-hā dā-bā beng-rang-in Hā-mā reng-sā-nū she-kept. Thathim tobaccoprepare-to king's-daughter daughter ā-om, hā-nūk-chu anikhu-injomā ānā-chong-en. kotoāl ā-nāv leï-le Kotoāl withshe-was, and day-every they-talked. kotwāl his-son Kotwāl 'Hā-mā mi hi-le kei-ni ei-chong ā-reng-in reye-pāk-ā-tī.' ā-nāv-in ā-tī, his-son he-said, 'This our conversation all know-all-he-will.' man this ā-mâ-keng i-te rē-māk.' Ā-mā-nūk-le ā-tī, ʻā-mā Reng-sā-nū she-said, · he idiotanything understands-not.' This-after Princess ān-ni-ngāi-hā ā-lāk-pā rām-mōl-ā ā-sē-rāng ānā-chong-māi. A-riet-ā country-to going-for they-talking-were. He-knowing king's distantthey ā-mān-rīet. 'Nang nā-nāy ā-vīen jān ār-khōn-ā nāv-in kotoāl-ā-kom he-communicated, ' Thy thy-son to-day night cock-crow-at kotwāl-to ā-sur-tit-ā reng-sā-nū lei-le seeng-ān-tī.' ā-nāv-hā Kotoāl ā-rīet-ā ā-mā Kotwal he-knowing his-son-that with go-they-will.' hishe-seizing princess nāy-in kotoāl-ā-nāy-ā-sā-kor-hā ā-choi-ā kumārī-ā-kom sie. Reng kept. King's kotwāl-his-son-his-pony-that he-taking princess-to he ālāk dese ānā-tung-nūk-le 'Thâ-sē-rei.' $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{n}\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -sē- $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ -s $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ - $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ ā-vā-tī, ' Go-let-us.' They-going distant country they-arrived-having he-going he-said, kotoāl-ā-nāy ni-māk.' Ā-mā-hān 'Hi-mā-hi reng nāv-in kumārī ā-riet, ' This kotvoāl-his-son is-not. Then king's she-knew, 80n princess Imotile-chu ān riet-pui. ā-mā-lāi-hān ān-ni-ngāi kumārī-ā-kom revealed-himself. But that-time-that-at he princess-to

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ān-kūt-ā sum-paisā ā-sāk-rāng alek-te-lo ā-māk. A-nūk-chu reng-sā-nū their-hand-in money eating-for anything was-not. Butprincess in-khāt-ā rāng-kāchāk vā-tok ā nei, reng nāv-hā ā tīr-ā ā-jor-rang goldduck she had, one king's son-that sending sell-to ā-mān-choi. Hā-nūk-chu mi-in ā-en-rāng ān-tī-le reng nāy ā-tī, she-gave. And people seeing-for they-saying king's son he-said. 'Rang-kachak māi-rāng-ā-chung-ā tui-le en-roi.' Hā-nūk-chu hi-mā ' Gold plate-on water-with see.' And that penā rang-kachak mai-rang rām-mol-ā reng ā-nie ā-māk-ngāi. hā-pen goldkingexcepted country-in platethere-was morethere-was-none. Hā-nūk-chu reng vā-tok ā-en-ā ā-mā ā-man ā-rā-kel. Reng nāy-in duck And king he-seeing itsits-price he-enquired. King's son 'Kei-mā hi-mā-tāk-ā-hin ā tī, in-ding-kā-tī-ā pil kāng kil-man-lik-in $^{\iota}I$ this-spot-in he said. stand-I-will-and earthen clodssides-four-on hā-mā-tūk-hā in-khāt-ā vor-kā-tī-le ā-tun-dor pang nā-sin-ā, ī-tūk-mâ throw-I-will-and it-goes-as-far thou-making, how-much 80-far one fence ā-keng? hā-tūk-hā nei-nūn nā-nei-pek-rāng.' Ā-mā-āng-hān ā-tī-le articles it-contains? so-much thou-give-wilt.' This-like he-said-having reng pang ā-sin. Ā-mā-hān nei-nun-le man-sip-mak-a a-the-in an-jāk-ā king fence he-made. That things-with filled-not-being himself ashamed-being nāy-hā reng ā-mā ā-rām ā-pēk-ā ā-mā reng-hā ā-sē. king's son-this his his-land he-giving that king-that he-fleeing he-went. Hā-nūk-chu reng nāy-in kumārī ā-vā-ro-ā ā-mā rām-hān reng king's And 80n princess he-fetching thatland-that-in king ānā-om. ānā-chang-ā they-being they-lived.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

THE STORY OF A PRINCE.

A king said to his youngest son, 'what will you do when I am dead?' The prince said, 'when you die, I shall go to a king's house and tell him that I am an idiot and understand nothing, but shall do whatever one tells me to do,' and he did so when the king was dead. The daughter of the king of that place employed him to prepare her tobacco. The king's daughter used to meet with the kotwāl's son and talked with him every day. The kotwāl's son said, 'this man will know what we talk about,' but the princess replied that the man was an idiot and understood nothing. Then they talked of going to a distant land. The king's son understood it and said to the kotwāl, 'your son will go away with the princess this night, at day-break.' Having known this the kotwāl seized his son and kept him back. The prince getting upon the pony of the kotwāl's son went to the princess and said to her, 'let us go.' When they reached the distant country the princess learnt that this was not the kotwāl's son. The prince then revealed himself to the princess. But they had no money in their hands for maintenance. The princess,

however, had a golden duck which she made over to the prince to sell; and if any one wanted to see it, the prince asked for a golden plate with water to put it upon. In that land none but the king had golden plate, and seeing the duck, the king enquired what its price was. The prince said, 'I shall stand here and throw clods of earth all round me, and you will fence the ground as far as the clods go, and fill the space with various articles.' Being told thus, the king made a fence which could not be filled with articles; and being ashamed he gave his kingdom to the prince and fled away.

The prince then brought in the princess and lived there as a king.

LANGRONG.

The Langrongs, according to Mr. Soppitt, are the Kukis inhabiting the Tipperah Hills, and are identical with the Rangkhöls. The specimens and the list of standard words and phrases which are given below have been forwarded as specimens in Kuki. Their language is so closely related to Rangkhol and Hallam that I do not hesitate to identify it with the Langrong mentioned by Mr. Soppitt. Langrong or Lengreng is also spoken by a few individuals in the Cachar Plains, to the south and east of the Sadr Sub-division. They have come down from the hills since the Census of 1891. The Deputy Commissioner gives 399 as the total for Ralte, Saimar and Lengreng, without saying how many speakers there are of each. It has proved impossible to get any specimens. Mr. Damant called the tribe Ranglong and found it in North Cachar. In Sylhet there are said to be 1,600 speakers of Kuki. No specimens have been received, but the numerals have been taken down in several parts of the district, and in two cases, they agree with the forms given in the Tipperah list, while two other lists apparently belong to Hallam and Thado respectively. We may provisionally put down 533 as the total for Langrong in Sylhet and 133 in the Cachar Plains. If we suppose that the 5,600 individuals who are returned as speaking Kuki in Hill Tipperah speak Langrong, the probable totals for this dialect would be :--

Hill Tipperah			•										5,600
Cachar Plains					•	•							133
Sylhet .	•		٠	•		•	. •	•	•	•			533
										To	TOTAL		6,266

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SMART, ROBERT B.,—Geographical and Statistical Report on the District of Tipperah. Calcutts, 1866. Tipperah (i.e., Langrong) vocabulary on p. 3.

Campbell, Sir George,—Specimens of Languages of India, including those of the Aboriginal Tribes of Bengal, the Central Provinces and the Eastern Frontier. Calcutta, 1874. Kukee of Tipperah on pp. 204 and ff.; probably also the 'Kuki' specimens on pp. 220 and ff.

Soppitt, C. A.,—A Short Account of the Kuki Lushai Tribes on the North-East Frontier (Districts Cachar, Sylhet, Naga Hills, etc., and the North Cachar Hills), with an Outline Grammar of the Rangkhol-Lushai Language and A Comparison of Lushai with other Dialects. Shillong, 1887. Mention of Langrong on p. 3.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Hill Tipperah. The list seems to be corrupt. It is, however, quite independent of the specimens and has therefore been useful for checking the results derived from the specimens. The following remarks on Langrong, which are based on the materials just mentioned, are the first attempt to describe this language, and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—The spelling in the list of words is very inconsistent. I have corrected it as far as possible, but in some cases it is almost impossible to form an

accurate opinion of the pronunciation. Thus, \hat{a} and \hat{o} ; ai and \hat{e} , respectively, are used for the same sounds. For instance, $r\hat{a}$ and $r\bar{o}$, the suffix of the imperative; tlai and $tl\bar{e}$, to run; pai, $p\bar{e}$, and $p\bar{e}k$, to give. The i of the suffix in may apparently be dropped after a preceding vowel; thus, $p\bar{a}$ -in and $p\bar{a}n$, by the father. The use of aspirated letters is rather inconsistent. Thus, $kh\bar{a}t$ and $k\bar{a}t$, one; $ph\bar{u}ng$ and $p\bar{u}ng$, stomach, etc. Ph seems usually to be pronounced f; thus, $ph\bar{a}k$ or $f\bar{a}k$, eat; $ph\bar{e}i$ or $f\bar{e}i$, foot. Dh and th are both written for d in the list, in the termination ding. I have always written d, as do the specimens. T and t occur in the same word; thus $tl\bar{e}$ or tlai, to run. Consonants are occasionally silent; thus, $ph\bar{a}k$ and $ph\bar{a}$, to eat. We once find $r\bar{e}n$ - $k\bar{a}$ instead of $r\bar{e}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, all, but the pronunciation is probably the same in both cases. A euphonic g is sometimes written; thus, nai- $g\bar{a}$ or nai- $g\bar{a}$, under. A consonant is sometimes doubled; thus, $all\bar{a}$ or $all\bar{a}$, far; $omm\bar{a}$ or am-a, being, etc.

Articles.—The numeral khāt, one, is used as an indefinite article, and demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—The word $p\bar{a}$, father, occurs twice in the form $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{e}$ $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my father, \bar{a} -ni $k\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, his father. But usually $k\bar{e}$ $p\bar{a}$, \bar{a} $p\bar{a}$.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. Different words may be used for the two sexes. Thus $p\bar{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: $p\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}l$, man; $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, woman. In other cases suffixes are used to denote the gender. Such are, in the case of human beings, $p\bar{a}$, male; $n\bar{u}$, female. In the case of animals the male suffix is chal, and the female $p\bar{u}i$. Thus, $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$, son; $n\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{u}$, daughter: $s\bar{a}$ -kor chal, horse; $s\bar{a}$ -kor $p\bar{u}i$, mare.

Number.—The suffix of the plural is hēi; thus, tēn-hēi, friends.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative, and the Dative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is usually distinguished by the suffix in, denoting the agent. The verb may be a participle or an infinitive; thus $v\tilde{a}k$ -in $ph\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$ $k\tilde{a}k$, the pigs-by eaten husks. The Genitive is expressed by putting the stem, without any suffix, or repeated by means of a pronoun, before the governing noun; thus, nang- $m\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}i$, thy father's sons; $m\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{o}r$ \bar{a} - $k\bar{u}m$ \bar{i} - $j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ - $m\hat{a}$, this horse its years how-many? The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is sometimes added; thus, kai- $m\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$ $l\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ $s\bar{e}l\hat{a}$ - $h\bar{e}i$, my father's hired servants.

The Locative is formed by means of the suffixes \bar{a} and in. In is also used to denote the agent (see above) and the instrument; thus, $r\bar{u}$ -in, (bind) with ropes. Other postpositions used to denote the various relations of nouns are: $l\bar{a}i$ - \bar{a} , between; nai- \bar{a} , under; $m\bar{a}$ -teng, before; $n\bar{e}ng$, in, for; $n\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} , in, to, from; $n\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , behind; $p\bar{o}\bar{a}$, out of; $r\bar{o}al$ -in, gathering, with; $r\bar{u}$ -ai, from; $s\bar{u}ng$ - $a\bar{a}$, in; tai- $a\bar{a}$, in, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes are then added to them and not to the qualified noun. Thus, $m\bar{\imath}$ than $n\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} , man good to. The suffix of comparison is $n\bar{e}k$ -in or ning-in. Thus, \bar{a} far- $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{e}k$ -in $\bar{a}n$ -sang, his sister than tall; $r\bar{e}n$ - $k\bar{a}$ ning-in $p\bar{o}an$ than all than cloth good.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. $P\bar{a}$ in $p\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}t$, one, etc., is probably a generic particle. But I cannot find any rule for its use. Thus we find mi- $r\bar{e}m$ $p\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}t$ and mi $kh\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$, one man, $K\bar{a}$ in $kh\bar{a}t$ - $k\bar{a}$, etc., is perhaps identical with the $k\bar{a}$ in words such as $j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, whatever; $r\bar{e}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, all; tai- $k\bar{a}$, short; $l\bar{a}m$ - $k\bar{a}$, much; \bar{i} - $k\bar{a}$, any; $\bar{a}ng$ - $k\bar{a}$, like, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns, to which the ordinary suffixes may be added :-

Singular.

kai-mā, I.

kai-mā, kē, my.

kai·mā-tā, mine.

nang-mā, thou.

nang-mā, nai, thy.

nang-mā- $t\bar{a}$, thine.

 \bar{a} -ni, $\bar{a}n$, he.

āni, ān, ā, his.

ā-ni-tā, his.

Plural.

kai-mā-ni, kui-ni, we:

kai-mā-ni-tā, kai-ni-tā, ours.

nang-mā-ni, you.

nang-mā-ni-tā, yours.

 $\bar{a}n$ - $m\bar{a}$ -ni, they.

ān-mā-ni-tā, theirs.

To these forms must be added the pronominal prefixes used before verbs. In the singular they are identical with the short possessive forms, kē, nai, ā. The plural forms are kāin, nāin, and ān-in or ān, and these may probably also be used as possessive pronouns with nouns and postpositions.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur:-

 $H\bar{a}$, this; hi, this; $m\bar{a}$, that; $s\acute{a}$, that; $m\ddot{a}$ -hi, that, he.

Relative pronouns.—Participles and verbal nouns are used in relative clauses; thus, vák-in phāk-nā kák, pigs-by eaten husks; mā háng-tik-in, he coming-time-at.

Interrogative pronouns.—Tū-mā, who? ī-mā, what? ī-jā-kā-mā, how many? i-ding-má, why? Thus, tū-nāi-má, whose son? mā-hēi ī-má, these what?

Indefinite pronouns. - Ikā, any; tū-khám, anyone. Khám in tū-khám seems to mean 'even'; thus, tik-tik-khám, time-time-even, once even.

Verbs.—Verbs may be conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are as follows: kē or kai, I; kāin, we: nā or nai, thou; nāin, you: ān or \bar{a} , he, she, it; $\bar{a}n$ or $\bar{a}n$ -in, they. The use of these prefixes is very inconsistent, and they are often dropped.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, kai-mā kāl, I go; ān-mā-ni lung-tlāi-tir, they merry-to-make-began; kai-mā sir, I have walked; ā-ni hál, he is-grazing.

The suffix of Past tenses is tā; thus, kai-mān kē hem-tā, I struck; ān pā-in ā-ni mū-tā, his father him saw.

The suffix of the Future is ding; thus, kai-mā thá-in kē pā nēng-ā kāl-ding, I arising my father-to go-will.

The suffix of the Imperative is ro or ra; thus, pē-ro, give; choy-ra, bring, draw; būn-tir-rō, to-wear-cause you. A first person plural is formed by means of the suffix rang, probably a suffix of the future. Thus, kai-mā-ni phāk-in lung-ţlāi-rang, us eating merry-make-let. See also Infinitive, below.

The simplest form of the Infinitive or Verbal Noun seems to be the root alone. A common suffix is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $k\bar{a}l$ - $n\bar{a}$, to go; $ph\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$, to eat, food. It will be observed that this form is constantly given in the list of words to translate the verbal roots. Thus, hong-nā, come; ngir-nā, stand, etc. Infinitives of purpose are formed with the suffixes ding and rang; thus, hal-nā-ding-in, grazing-for; phūng-khâf-ding ning-tā, belly-fill-for

wished; kai-mā ṭēn-hēi rōal-in lung-ṭlāi-rang, my friends with feasting-for. Compare also ā-ni-ding-in, his-sake-for.

Participles.—The root alone may be considered as a Relative participle in $m\bar{a}$ háng-tik-in, he coming-time-at. The same meaning has the verbal noun ending in $n\bar{a}$; thus, $v\bar{a}k$ -in $ph\bar{a}k$ - $n\bar{a}$ kák, pigs-by eaten husks; $m\bar{a}$ $j\bar{a}l$ - \bar{a} ám- $n\bar{a}$ mi, that country-in residing man. The suffix i- $l\bar{a}$ is used to form a Conjunctive participle; thus, $b\bar{a}k$ - $il\bar{a}$ $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{o}$, dividing give. The locative suffixes \bar{a} and in form Conjunctive and Adverbial participles. Thus, in- \bar{a} $n\bar{e}ng\bar{a}$ ám- \bar{a} hai- $t\bar{a}$, house near being he heard; kai- $m\bar{a}$ thá-in kāl-ding, I arising go-will; $ph\bar{a}k$ -in lung- $tl\bar{a}i$ -rang, eating let-us-rejoice. The second specimen uses \bar{e} instead of in; thus, $s\bar{o}al$ - \bar{e} , being tired.

There is no Passive voice. The suffix in after the subject of a transitive verb denotes the active. But its use is somewhat inconsistent, and its absence does not, therefore, always show that the verb is in the passive voice. The context must be consulted. Thus, nāng-mā nāi-bung hi bai-tā nūng-ā mū-tā, thy brother this lost-was afterwards found-was.

Compound verbs.—No prefixes occur in the specimens. Causatives are formed by means of the verb tir; thus, kāl-tir, to cause to go, to send. Desideratives are formed by adding nām, to wish; thus, kāl-nām-māk, to-go-wished-not. Thēi means 'to be able' 'to be allowed.' Thus, kai om-thēi, I may be. Other words used as the last part of compound verbs are: ēm-ēm, exceedingly; jā, completely; khir, back, again; khul-khul, to be about, etc.

The Negative particle is $m\bar{a}k$; thus, $k\bar{a}l-n\bar{a}m-m\bar{a}k$, to-go-wished-not. Another negative, na, occurs twice after $p\bar{e}$, to give; thus, $p\bar{e}-na$, gave not. A third negative, lai, occurs in $\bar{a}-th\bar{a}-lai$, good-not, bad; ai-lai, obey-not; $ai-lai\cdot\bar{a}$, disobeying, against.

The Interrogative particle is $m\tilde{a}$ or $m\tilde{o}$; thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}ng$ -a $m\tilde{a}$, whom from ? \bar{i} -hang-mo, why? because, etc. See also Interrogative pronouns, above.

[No. 19.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LANGRONG.

(STATE, HILL TIPPERAH.)

Mirēm pākāt-ā nāi nikā lāiā nāi-pāng-in ā-ni kā-pā nēngā nēi. $M\bar{a}$ two were-got. Them among younger one-to sons his father near ā-ti-tā, 'kē kā-pā, sūmpūn kai-mā mū-nā jākā bāk-ilā pē-rō.' Mā said, 'my father, of-goods I getting alldividing give.' Them among sumpun bāk-ilā pē-tā. Taikā nungā nāipang nāin rēngkān dividing gave. Short after younger 80n allgathering-together jâl-ā-lā-hān kāl-tā, chūn mā-hin ā-ni sūmpūn tāmtāmkā jâr-ilā country-a-far-to went. andthere hisgoodsin-plenty spending ā-pāy-tā. Mā rēngkān jâr-jā-in mā jâlā-hān bū-ngēi-ēm-ēm-tā, he-squandered. He allspent-entirely-having that country-in famine-dire-arose, chūn mā āntākā tūl. $M\bar{a}$ tik-ā mā mā jál-ā âm-nā mi khātkā nēngā and he want-in fell. That time-at he that country-in resident person one. kāl-tā; mā $\mathbf{m}i$ āni vâk hâl-nā-dingin lai-ā kāl-tir-tā. Nūngā mā vâk-in went; that man his pigs grazing-for field-in sent. Then hepigsphāk-nā kâk phāk-in phūng-khâf-ding ning-tā, chūn tū-khâm ān pē-na. eatenhusks eating belly-fill-to desired, butany-one him-to gave-not. Nūngā mēng-in ān ti-tā, 'kai-mā pā-tā lō mūnā sēlâ-hēi Thencoming-to-senses he said, 'my father's salary receiving servants phāk-nā tērâ mū-thēi-tā, chūn kai-mā mā-hin tāmkā ngēi-in thi-khul-khul. plenty eatable things get-could, and I herehunger-in dying-am. kē-pā Kai-mā thâ-in nēngā kāl-ding, mā nēngā hil-ding, "kē-pā, rising my-father's near go-will, him near say-will, "my-father, Ι Iai-lai-ā chūn nāng-mā nēngā bānisāl kē tēorāl thō-tā, kai-mā nāng-mā heaven against and 4026 near sinI have-committed, I your nāi tivā ti-thēi-māk; kai-mān nāng-mā lō mū-nā sēlâ khātkā son saying say-may-not; me your salary receiving servant one āngkā âm-tir-ro."' Nūngā thâ-in ā-pā nēngā kāl-tā. Chūn kār-ālā like be-let." Then rising his-father near But at-distance went. âm-tik-ā pāin ā-ni mū-tā, chūn ān ngāi-in, tlē-in, kāl-in ān being-time-at his father him saw, and compassionate-being, running, going his kōa-in ā-dâp-tā. Nāin ān ti-tā, 'kē-pā, kai-mā tēorāl ai-lai-ā neck-on holding he-kissed. Son he said, 'my-father, heaven against \boldsymbol{I} chun nang-ma nenga banisal ke tbō-tā. kai-mā nāng-mā nāi tiyā and you near sin I have-committed, Ι vourson saying 2 E 2

pāin ā-ni sēlâ-hēi nēngā ti-tā. 'rang-rang-in ti-thēi-māk.' Chun father his servants $n\epsilon ar$ said, 'quickly say-may-not. Butrēnkā-ningin pōan thā châ-in māhi sil-tir-rō; māhi kūţ-ā kūt-būn, chūn hand-on cloth good bringing him put-on; ring, phēi-ā phēikok būn-tir-rol; chūn kai-mā-ni phāk-in lung-ţlāi-rang; hā-lāi-nēng eating merriment-make-will; we put-on; and foot-on dām-tā; bai hi thi-tā, nunga nūngā kai-mā nāi having-been-lost afterwards alive-came; after this died, Nūngā ān-mā-ni lung-tlāi-tir. mū-tā.' merry-making-began. they

found-has-been.' Then

hâng-in Chūn ā-ni nāi ū-liēnā lāi-ā âmā, Mā in-ā nēngā âm-ā elder field-in was. He come-having house near being-on lāmnā chūn khâng-ri hai-tā. Mā tik-ā mā sēlā khātkā nēngā dancing and music-sound heard. That time-at he servant one near called-having hēi ī-mā?' Ā-ni ān nēngā hil-tā, 'nāng-mā nāiān nēngā dân-tā, 'mā 'this all what?' He him near said, 'your brothernearasked. hâng-tā, ehūn năng-mā pān phāknā tāmkā dil-tā; ī-hāng-mō your father foodgreat has-prepared; because younger come-has, and mū-tā.' Chūn māhi nâr-tā, in-sūngā kāldām-in ā-ni māhi him sound-health-in got-has.' Butheangry-became, house-in-side to-gohâng-in nāi nēngā in-pōā nâm-māk; nūngā ān $p\bar{a}$ his father house-outside come-having sonnear answeredwished-not; then en-ro. kūm khōa рā nēngā, tâng-kh ir-hil-tā ān hil-ta. Chun an answering-back-said his father near, ·lo, year hesaid. Butphāk-tir-tā, nāng-mā tâng ī-kā tik-tik-khâm kai-mān nāng-mā order any ever served, your I you chūn tik-tik-khâm kēl-tē khātkā-kâm pē-na, chūn kai-mā tēn-hēi ai-lai-māk; one-even gave-not, that-in kidtransgressed-not; still ever chūn nāng-mā nāi māhi nâți rōalin nāng-mā lung-tlai-rang; rōalin harlotswith merriment-making-for; butyour son thiswith mā-tik-ā nang-mā āni dingin phāknā mā hâng-tik-in phā-jā-ilā sūmpūn for came-when that-time-at him you eaten-up-having he goods 'kē-nāi, nāng-mā nintina ān nēngā hil-tā, Chūn māhān tamkā 'my-son, said. you nearButhe himprepared.' great rēngkān nāng-mā-tā. Chūn nēngā âm-tā, chūn kai-mā âm jākā kai-mā being whatever Butallyours. and mywere, me ā-chāng-tā, hā-lāi-nēng nāng-mā nāi-bung chūn in-dāi-nā dān tlāi-nā

proper it-has-become, your brother-younger for joyful merry mū-tā.' nūngā bai-tā, dām-tā: nūngā hi thi-tā was-lost, afterwards found-has-been. this died afterwards olive-came;

[No. 20.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

LANGRONG.

(HILL TIPPERAH.)

SPECIMEN II.

A KUKI FOLK-SONG.

thang bāpōal rōalē Rēngā Dhanësh-bird spreading-wings Allbeing-together lūng-di lūng lēng-ē. sõalē Ā-lām≖ē They-dance being-weary joy-with mind is-mad. sāl-tē thi-poan, Mökāmā striped-cloth, Mōkāmā-in flagsōalē. Bongā dāpno is-tired. Flying mind lēngē. Lüng-di lüng With-joy mind is-mad.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

We shall all being together dance like the Dhanesh bird spreading (as it were) our wings and become weary. Our mind is mad with joy. Like the flag over the Mokama (a sacred building of Muhammadans) our mind flutters and is mad with joy.

AIMOL.

Aimol is spoken by a small tribe in the hills round the valley of Manipur. There is also a small settlement at Aimol, a village in the southern part of the valley. There are stated to be only small remnants left of the tribe, and the total number of speakers is estimated to be between 500 and 1,000. The Aimols, who assert that they have come from the direction of Tipperah, are mentioned by Messrs. McCulloch and Damant. Compare the Authorities quoted under Kōm, Chiru, etc. But no authority gives a description of the tribe or an account of the language. The remarks on Aimol grammar which follow are, therefore, entirely based on the texts printed below. These comprise two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases, prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Aimol village in the valley of Manipur. The second specimen, an Aimol folk-tale, gives a very good idea of the language. I have hyphened out the single words and altered the translation in several points. Aimol is apparently less influenced by Meithei than most other dialects of the Manipur State, and this influence is almost entirely confined to the vocabulary. In all essential points of grammar the dialect is closely related to Rāngkhōl and connected languages.

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent and apparently not always correct. U is always marked as long, and o as short. In other cases we find the same vowel sometimes marked as long, and sometimes as short. Thus, ka and $k\bar{a}$, my; kārā and kāra, among; a-tār and a-tar, old; ngāi and ngai, many, used as a plural suffix; māi-kūng-am and ma-ton, before, etc. The vowels of prefixes are sometimes dropped. Thus, a-rmai, his tail, but ka-ra-mai, my tail; na-ming i-mo n-ti (i.e., na-ti), thy-name what thou-callest? Some vowels are interchangeable. Thus, the intensifying suffix ko is also written $k\bar{u}$ and $k\bar{e}$; the indefinite particle om also occurs as $\bar{u}m$. Ai and \bar{e} are interchanged; thus, a-laik-om and a-lek-om, he was. $A\bar{u}$, $\bar{a}o$, and ao seem all to denote the sound a. Compare having and hong, come; khaom and khavin, a certain fruit; chāok and chok, to buy. Concurring vowels are often contracted. Thus, a-mā-in and a-mān, he; chēng-ka-ta, i.e., chē-ing-ka-ta, going; a-ta, saying; from ti, to say, plus the suffix \bar{a} , etc. The form $t\bar{e}ng$, in, which occurs beside $tiy\bar{e}ng$ and tiyang, is probably of the same kind. The y in tiyeng is euphonic, while ya in tiyang is probably written for ē. The diphthongs ūā and ūo are usually written ūwā and ūwo. Thus, khūwā, village; pūwon, cloth. Y and w are also euphonic in words such as a-chē-yā, going; $a-m\bar{u}-w\bar{a}$, seeing. D is euphonic in an-d-rēng- $\bar{a}=an-r\bar{e}ng-\bar{a}$, all. W is probably written for \vec{u} in swok, slave; nwom, wish, etc. W, v, and b are interchangeable, and probably all written for w; thus, won and bon, belly; ha- $w\bar{a}$ and ha- $v\bar{a}$, that. L and r interchange in $l\bar{u}$ -fai, rupee; $r\bar{u}$ -fai, silver. Final consonants are usually softened when a vowel is added. Thus, $ch\bar{a}k$, eat; $ch\bar{a}g$ - \bar{a} , eating; $l\bar{u}t$, enter, come; a- $l\bar{u}d$ -a, coming. Final consonants are sometimes silent. Thus, mak and ma, not; alāk, far, but i-dor-mo la, how far? Final ng seems often to be very faintly sounded. Thus, kan-tho-in-ka-ta, for kan-tho-ing-ka-ta, arising. N in a-sen-pe-yoi, he divided, is probably only written for m, before p. Compare va-sēm-ro, divide. Cham, word, command, seems to be identical with chaing, word. Both are probably written for chang. N is often doubled between vowels. Thus, inn-ā, for in-ā, house-in; ka-ēn-nā, for ka-ēn-ā, I examining, etc.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Most of the prefixes and suffixes which occur in Aimol have a distinct meaning of their own and will be dealt with below. Only a few prefixes

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are used in a wider sense. Thus, a, in a-sā, good; a-ni-lām, dance; kan, in kan-kan-royā, together; ma, in ma-chial, salt; ma-tik, worthy; ma-tūm-pā, young; ra, in ra-bū, nest; ra-mai, tail; ra-naga, very, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral khat or an-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses are used in order to convey the idea of definiteness.

Nouns.—The prefixes a and ka, which often occur before nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body, are the possessive pronouns of the third and first persons. Thus, $a-p\bar{a}$, his-father; $ka-char-n\bar{u}$, my-sister; $\bar{e}-k\bar{a}-n\bar{u}$, i.e., $\bar{e}-ka-n\bar{u}$, alas, lit. O my mother.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. It is distinguished by means of suffixes, and, in the case of human beings, also by using different words. Thus, $a-p\bar{a}$, father; $a-n\bar{u}$, mother: pa-sal, man; $n\bar{u}-mai$, woman: pa-sal $n\bar{a}i$, man young, boy; $n\bar{u}-mai$ $n\bar{a}i$, girl: $a-n\bar{a}i$ pa-sal $n\bar{a}i$, his-son boy, son; $a-n\bar{a}i$ $n\bar{u}-mai$ $n\bar{a}i$, daughter. Pasal is also used as a male suffix; thus, $n\bar{a}i$ pasal, child male, son. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings, $p\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{u}$, and, in the case of animals, a-chal and chal, male, and $a-p\bar{u}i$, female. Thus, $swok-p\bar{a}$, a male slave; $a-lom-n\bar{u}$, his-wife: $s\bar{e}-kor$ a-chal, horse; $s\bar{e}-kor$ $a-p\bar{u}i$, mare: $k\bar{e}l$ chal, a he-goat; $k\bar{e}l$ $a-p\bar{u}i$, a she-goat.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural some word conveying the idea of plurality is added; thus, swok ngāi, servant many, servants; a-tar-ngai, old creatures; sē-kor a-chal tam, horse male many, horses; lū-fāi a-tam, rupee many, these rupees.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Ko is often added in order to emphasise the noun. Thus, $s\bar{e}$ -kor a-ngoi- $p\bar{a}$ y \bar{a} fal-ko, horse white's saddle; a- $m\bar{a}$ man-ko, that-of the-price. The suffix in, by, by means of, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, a-swok- $p\bar{a}$ -n-ko a-lai- $s\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} , his-servant-male he answered; kai- $k\bar{u}$ ong-in ka- \bar{e} l a- $p\bar{e}$ r, shrimp my-thigh it-bit. The Genitive is often expressed by simply putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$ swok $ng\bar{a}i$, my father's servants. The governed noun is often repeated by means of a possessive pronoun prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, fai- $b\bar{a}ng$ a-ra- $b\bar{u}$, ant its-nest, ants' nest; $r\bar{u}$ l a-rmai, snake its-tail, the snake's tail. The Vocative does not require any suffix, but an \bar{e} is sometimes prefixed; thus, \bar{e} - $p\bar{a}$, O father. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} , in, on, to, with; da and $d\bar{a}$, in, on; in, of, by means of; $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, among; $m\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{u}ng$ -am and ma-ton, before; $m\bar{u}$ -mag-a, getting-not, without; $n\bar{u}k$ - $ti\bar{e}ng$ and $n\bar{u}g$ - \bar{a} , back-at, behind; $s\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , in; $ti\bar{e}ng$, $ti\bar{e}ng$, tiyang, in, at; $y\bar{a}ng$, on; $y\bar{e}ng$ and $y\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} , to, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by the prefix a; thus, a- $s\bar{a}$, good; a- $s\bar{a}ng$ -a, high. A prefix ma occurs in ma- $t\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, younger. The suffix $p\bar{a}$ in this and in other adjectives is a suffix of the relative participle. The usual verbal suffixes are added when the adjectives have the function of a verb; thus, a- $s\bar{a}ng$ -yoi, he is tall. Some adjectives have, according to the list of words, two forms according to the number of the qualified noun. Thus, a- $s\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}$ -mai, a good woman; but a- $s\bar{a}i$ $n\bar{u}$ -mai $ng\bar{a}i$, good women. There are no instances in the specimens to show the application of this extraordinary rule. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. The particles of comparison are $n\bar{e}g$ - \bar{a} and $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$; thus, a-char- $n\bar{u}$ $n\bar{e}g$ - \bar{a} a- $n\bar{a}i$ -pang- $p\bar{a}$ a- $s\bar{a}ng$ -yoi, his-sister than his-brother he-tall-is; an-d- $r\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} $k\bar{a}ra$ a- $s\bar{a}ng$ -a, all

among tall, tallest. A kind of superlative is also effected by adding tak; thus, $p\bar{u}won$ $a-s\bar{a}-tak$, cloth good-much, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. An in the first three numerals is probably a generic prefix, but I fail to see the rule for its use. Thus, we find pasal an-khat, and pasal khat, a man. There are no traces in the specimens of other generic prefixes. In a-mā man-ko lū-fāi an-ni makhāi man-kē, that-of the-price rupees two and-a-half, the last man-kē seems to be a repetition of the subject man, price, and is not a generic suffix.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kai, I.nang, thou. $a-m\bar{a}$, he, she, it.ka, my.na, thy.a, his, her, its.kai-ka-ni, mine.nang-na-ni, thine. $a-m\bar{a}-t\bar{a}$, his, hers, its.

Plural,-

kai-ni, we, our. nang-ni, you, your. an-mā-ni, a-mā-ni, they, their.

A form nai, thou, seems to occur in kai $y\bar{e}ng$ -a lal nai na- $p\bar{e}k$ -rang, me to property thou thou-give-wilt; and $t\bar{u}$ $y\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} nai-chok-mo, whom from thou-boughtest? Nai in the first instance is perhaps identical with Chiru nai, property, and nai in nai-chok- $m\bar{o}$ seems to be a miswriting for na. A form na-tak, he, occurs in the list of words. The personal pronouns are inflected as nouns. Thus, kai ka- $cha\bar{u}ng$, I my-word, of me; nang-na- $sip\bar{a}$, thou thy-service, thy service; a- $m\bar{a}$ -ni $cha\bar{u}ng$, their word. Ni in kai-ka-ni, mine; nang-na-ni, thine, must be considered as the verb substantive. In nang-a-rang- $k\bar{e}$, thine, an a is inserted between nang and the postposition rang, for. Words such as ko, $k\bar{e}$, hi, etc., are added in order to emphasise the pronouns. Thus, kai-ko, I; nang-a-rang- $k\bar{e}$, thine; a- $m\bar{a}$ -hi, he. They are all originally demonstrative pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, this; ha and kha, that. Han-ko in pasal han-ko fai-loi- $y\bar{a}$ a-man- $ch\bar{e}$, man that field-to he-sent, seems to contain ha, the suffix of the agent, and the emphasising particle ko.

Relative pronouns.—There are no relative pronouns. A relative participle is formed by adding the suffix \bar{a} . Thus, $lai-p\bar{a}k$ kha-da $a-om-\bar{a}$ pa-sal khat, country that-in being man one. The ordinary tenses of the verb can be used in the same way. Thus, wok $i-ch\bar{a}k$ $cha-w\bar{a}i$, pigs eaten husks; kai $y\bar{e}ng-\bar{a}$ om lim, me to being all; kai $y\bar{e}ng-\bar{a}$ lal nai $na-p\bar{e}k-rang$ $na-p\bar{e}k-ta-ro$, me to property thou-give-wilt, thou give, give me the share which you intend to leave me. In the last instance the relative participle follows the qualified noun. $P\bar{a}$ seems to form relative participles or nouns of agency. Thus, $a-n\bar{a}i$ $\bar{u}-lien-p\bar{a}$, his-son the-elder; $hong-thai-p\bar{a}$ kai ka-ni-yoi, a-clever-man I I-am.

Interrogative pronouns.— $T\bar{u}$ -mo, who? i-mo, what? i-rai-hi-no, why? i-yat-mo, how much? how many? A-tak oho-mo, is translated 'where is the flesh?' in the second specimen. Oho-mo seems, therefore, to mean 'where?' An indefinite pronoun is effected by adding $\bar{u}m$ to the pronoun $t\bar{u}$; thus, $t\bar{u}n$ - $u\bar{u}m$ $p\bar{e}$ -mak \bar{u} , any one gave not.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ka, I; kan, kani, we: na, thou; nan and nana, you: a, he, she, it; an and ana, they. The singular prefixes sometimes occur with a verb in the plural. In No. 239 an is used in the singular. Ana seems to be used in the same way in ana-ma-

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 $l\bar{u}m$, he caused to roll, etc. In *i-mo ani-tho-so*, what is being done? ani seems to be a demonstrative pronoun, and the literal translation is apparently 'what that-done?' The plural prefix is used when the subject comprises two words connected by means of $l\bar{e}$, with. Thus, nang-ko $kai-l\bar{e}$ a-ni-tin $kan-om-\bar{a}$, thou me-with always we-remain. The prefixes are sometimes omitted. In $a-hoy\bar{a}n$ $ch\bar{a}g-\bar{a}$, they happily eating-are, the prefix an before $ch\bar{a}g-\bar{a}$ seems to have been contracted with the \bar{a} of the preceding $a-hoy-\bar{a}$.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times. Thus, kai ka-ni, I I-am; nāi pa-sal an-ni an-om, child male two they-were. A suffix ā, which generally forms adverbial clauses and conjunctive participles, is sometimes added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, a-ril-ā, he said; ā-ngāi-don-ā, he recollected. So and sē are apparently assertive suffixes in sentences such as i-mo ani-tho-so, what are they doing? nang-in kēl tē an-khat jag-om na-pē-mak-sē, thou goat young one even thou-gavest-not. The suffix lāi has a similar function; see Negative particle, below.

The suffix of the Past tenses is yoi as in Chiru. Compare Rāngkhōl jōi, to complete, to finish. Thus, a-sēn-pē-yoi, he divided-gave; ka-chē-yoi, I-have-walked; kai ka-vē-yoi, I I-had struck. It is also used to denote the present time when the action of the verb is considered as an established fact. Thus, ka-pā-ko in sin-ā a-om-yoi, my father house small-in he-lives. A-ni-yoi, it is, it was, is sometimes added to a verb in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, ani-loi kai tho a-ni-yoi, sin I did it-was, I sinned indeed. A kind of past tense is also effected by prefixing laik, lai, or lēk. Thus, a-laik-om and a-lēk-om, he was; a-lai-sang-ā, he answered. This form is also used as an imperfect; thus, kai ka-lai-vē, I was striking. A suffix pē is apparently added in forms such as a-yū-pē, he kissed; a-deng-pē, it fell; a-lūt-pē, he entered, etc. But these forms are really compound verbs, the latter part being a verb pē, probably identical with pē, to give. Compare a-pēr-a-pē, he bit, where the pronominal prefix is added to both verbs. Forms such as a-ma-lūm-rē, he-caused-to-roll, are perhaps due to the influence of Meithei.

A Present definite is formed by prefixing la, or by adding the verb om, to be, to remain. Thus, $kai\ ka-la-v\bar{e}$, I am striking; $s\bar{e}-r\bar{a}t\ sa-chik\ a-la-p\bar{e}$, cattle food he-isgiving; $s\bar{e}-kor\ a-chong-\bar{a}-om$, horse he-riding-is.

The suffix of the Future is ing, probably a postposition meaning 'for,' 'in order to.' The pronominal prefixes are wanting before this form; thus, lai choi-noning, fine pay-not-will, I will not pay fine. The verb ti, probably meaning 'to say,' preceded by the pronominal prefixes, is usually added. Thus, va-ril-ing-ka-ti, going-saying-for-I-say, I will go and say; nang-in vēng-na-ti, thou wilt strike. Another suffix of the future is rang. Thus, nang-ni na-vē-rang, you will strike; na-pēk-rang, thou wilt give; ka-won man-khop-rang, my-belly (I) fill-will. The form chang-lang-rong, in na-swok khat chang-lang-rong, thy-servant one (I) be-will, seems to be connected with the imperative. I-sig-ā-mo-ka-tin-ko, because, perhaps contains a future ka-tin. The literal translation seems to be 'why? I will tell.'

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ro, and in the first person plural rai. Thus, $p\bar{e}$ -ro, give; va-choi-ro, bring; $b\bar{e}ng$ - $p\bar{e}$ -ro, cause to put on; om-lang-rai, let us remain. Lang in om-lang-rai also occurs in na-swok khat chang-lang-rong, thy-servant one (I) be-will. Ta is prefixed to ro in na- $p\bar{e}k$ -ta-ro, give; $b\bar{e}ng$ -ta-ro, put, etc.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus, kaini-ko a-hoy-ā kani-om-hi a-ni-yoi, we happily our-remaining-this it-good-is. The past tense ending in yoi is used as a past verbal noun. Postpositions are freely added to these verbal nouns in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, ni a-laik-a-lak om-ā, days few being-in, after a few days had passed; a-lung-a-thag-a, his-mind-its-angry-becoming-in, having got angry; a-lag-a a-om-lay-a, distance-at his-being-time-at, when he was far off; a-thi-nū, his-dying-after, after he had died; ka-chang-yoi-yā, my being-finishing-in, having been; a-ring-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko, his-revived-having-on-account of, because he came alive, etc. Compare Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. A suffix na seems to occur in a-hong-na-khan-a-ko, his-coming-time-at-just, as soon as he came. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is rang, the same postposition which is also used in order to form the future. Thus, kai-ko na-nāi chang-rang ka-ma-lik-ni-lāi-ma, I thy-son being-for I-worthy-am-not; thi-rang ka-tho-yoi, dying-for I-prepared, I am about to die; kan chāk-rang, our eating for, in order that we might eat. Compare nang-a-rang-kē, thee-for, thine. The purpose can also be expressed in other ways. Thus, 'wok sēl-ro' a-ta, 'pigs tend' saying, in order to tend pigs.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned with Relative pronouns. The noun of agency is, as stated in the same place, formed by the suffix $p\bar{a}$. A word $k\bar{e}ng$ is added in $y\bar{a}\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{e}l$ -pa- $k\bar{e}ng$, a shepherd. La \bar{u} -chon-mi- $k\bar{e}ng$, a cultivator, contains the same word $k\bar{e}ng$, and is formed by prefixing the relative participle without any suffix to mi, a man. The suffix \bar{a} , mentioned with verbal nouns, forms Adverbial and Conjunctive participles. Thus, a-hoy- \bar{a} om-lang-rai, happily let-us-remain; a-ring- \bar{a} a- $k\bar{u}$ - $v\bar{a}$ a- $y\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{e}$, his-neck-on he-falling he-kissed; ch $\bar{e}ng$ -ka-ta va-ril-ing-ka-ti, go-will-I-saying say-I-will, I will go and say. The suffix $l\bar{a}$ forms a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two co-ordinate imperatives. In is prefixed to this $l\bar{a}$ if the imperative is of the first person plural, and $\bar{u}n$ if it is of the second person plural. Thus a-hoy- \bar{a} $n\bar{e}k$ -in- $l\bar{a}$ a-hoy- \bar{a} om-lang-rai, merrily eating merrily let-us-remain; $p\bar{u}$ won as \bar{a} -tak va-choi- \bar{u} n- $l\bar{a}$ a-m \bar{a} -hi man-kai-ro, cloth best bringing him cause-to-wear. In a- $m\bar{a}$ -ha-ko $v\bar{e}$ -jag-in- $l\bar{a}$ $r\bar{u}$ i- $y\bar{a}$ khit-ro, him beaten-having ropes-with bind, in- $l\bar{a}$ is the suffix in the second person singular.

There is no Passive voice. The suffix of the agent is usually added to the subject of an active transitive verb. When it is dropped the context shows how to translate. Thus a-sūong-yoi-mo, his-cooking? is he cooked? ka-sūong-yoi, my-cooking, I cooked. The first of these sentences must be translated as a passive, the second as an active. Kai-in ka-sūong-yoi, me-by my-cooking-took-place, would have removed all ambiguity. The list gives kai-in na-vē, I am beaten, but kai-in is probably wrong. Kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi, me thy-striking it-is, I shall be struck, is a correct form. It might also be expressed in the following way, nang-in kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi, thee-by me thou-strike-wilt it-is, I shall be struck indeed.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the primary verb. Thus, a-hong-ring-ret, he-came-lived-again, he came alive again; a-dēng-khiyak-yoi, it fell-destroyed; a-sēn-pē-yoi, he divided-gave. The prefixes ma and man form causatives. Thus, an-ma-soi-yoi, they-let-him-go; a-man-chē, he-caused-to-go, he sent. En seems to have been prefixed to tho in kan-tho-in-ka-ta, probably for ka-en-tho-ing-ka-ta, I-arising. It seems to mean 'up.' Hong, to come, is used as a prefix in order to denote

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motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choi-ro, come-carry, bring. Va or $v\bar{a}$ probably means 'to go,' and denotes motion. Thus, va-sēm-ro, go-and-cut; $v\bar{a}$ -ha \bar{u} -roi-yoi, she went and complained. Desideratives are formed by adding nvom, to wish; thus, $l\bar{u}t$ -nvom- $l\bar{u}i$ - $m\bar{a}$, (he) to-enter-wished-not. Intensives seem to be formed by reduplicating the root; thus, a-yong-yong- \bar{a} , he-coming-coming, running. Other words added in order to form compounds are don, to begin; jag, well; kir, back; $s\bar{u}$, entirely, etc.

The Negative particle is mak, ma, or mā. Thus, na-pē-mak-sē, thou-gavest-not; sa-mak, bad; kai niēl-om-mā, I disobeyed-not. Lāi is often inserted before ma; thus, ka-ma-tik-ni-lāi-ma, I-worthy-am-not. It is probably a verb substantive. Another negative is noni, corresponding to Rāngkhōl noni; thus, lai choi-noning, fine (I) paynot-will.

The Interrogative particle is mo. It is generally a part of the interrogative pronoun, but is sometimes also added to the verb. Thus, $na-n\bar{u}g-\bar{a}$ pa-sal $n\bar{a}i$ $t\bar{u}$ -mo $an-ha\bar{u}ng$ -mo, thee-behind man young whose he-comes? It is added to the verb when there is no interrogative pronoun; thus, $a-s\bar{u}ong-yoi$ -mo, has it been cooked? In disjunctive questions it is added to both members; thus, $t\bar{u}i$ $t\bar{u}$ -mo na-ngam $t\bar{u}i$ $t\bar{a}i$ -mo na-ngam, water hot thou-wishest, water cold thou-wishest? Doest thou prefer hot or cold water?

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. But there are many exceptions from the rule, especially in the list of words.

[No. 21.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

AIMOL.

Specimen I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

A-nāi ma-tūm-pān Pasal khat nāi pasal an-ni an-om. ā-pā-yeng Man one-of child male two they-were. His-son younger his-father-to lal nai na-pēk-rang, na-pēk-ta-ro.' 'Ē-pā, kai yēng-a property thou(?) thou-give-wilt, thou-give.' His-father he-said, 'Father, me toa-lal a-sēn-pē-yoi. Ni a-laik-a-lak om-ā a-nāi an-ni-yā a-nāi he-divided-gave. his-sons two-for his-property Days some being-in his-son mi-khūwā a-lāg-ā a-choy-ā a-lal lim khad-a ma-tum-pan a-chē-vā althe-carrying his-property villagefar-to one-to younger pūwo-mag-a a-lal lim a-man-mang-yoi. Aman lal lim man-mang-sū-wā he-wasted. wasted-after wickedly his-property all He property all A-mā-ko mi-khūwā kha-da bū ra-naga a-lū-yoi. a-pong-yoi. A-mān very it-dear-became. he-distressed-became. village that-in food He Helai-pāk kha-da a-om-ā pasal khat-yēng a-lūd-a pasal han-ko, 'wok sēl-ro,' that-in residing man one-to his-going-in man country that, ' pigs tend.' a-ta fāi-loy-ā a-man-chē. A-mān-om wok i-chāk cha-wāi ngal-om fields-to husks saying he-sent. $H\epsilon$ -even pigs eaten even'ka-won man-khop-rang,' ha-vā-ngal-hā chāg-ā, tā, tūn-ūm pē-ma-kū. 'my-belly fill-will, saying, nevertheless eating, anyone gave-not. A-ching-na-khan-a-ko 'Ka-pā a-ngāi-donā, swok ngal-om 'My-father's servants He-wise-becoming he-to-consider-began, many even a-hoyān kai-ko chāg-ā, ka-bon-a-chām-a thi-rang ka-tho-yoi. Kai-in happily are-eating, I-but my-belly-its-hunger-with dying-for I-did. I kan-tho-in-ka-ta ka-pā yeng cheng-ka-ta va-ril-ing-ka-ti, " E-pā, Pa-thien " O-father, I-arising my-father going say-will, toGod māi-kūng-am, kai-tho ē-pā, na-māi-kūng-am, a-ni-loi a-ni-voi. Kai-ko before, O-father, I-did indeed. thee-before, sin I chang-rang ka-ma-tik-ni-lāi-ma. na-nāi sē-lo Na-swok kārā na-swok Thy-servants thy-son be-to I-worthy-am-not. hired among thy-servant khat chang-lang-rong."' Hi a-ta a-mān a-pā-yēng a-hong-yoi. be-will." one Thishe-saying his-father-to he-came. A-lāg-ā a-om-lay-a a-pān a-mū-wā, a-lung-a-si-ya a-nāi-yēng Far-off his-beiny-time-at his-father he-seeing, his-mind-it-moving his-son-to

Ha-wā-han-ko a-nāi-in a-yū-pē. a-kū-wā, a-ring-ā a-yong-yong-ā Thereupon his-son he-embracing he-kissed. his-neck-on he-running na-māi-kūng-am, ē-pā, Pa-thien māi-kūng-am, a-ril-ā. · E-pa, a-pā-yēng O-father, thee-before, before, · O-father, Godhis-father-to he-said, chang-rang ka-ma-tik-ni-lāi-ma.' na-nāi Kai-ko a-ni-yoi. kai-tho a-ni-loi I-worthy-am-not.' thy-son be-to I indeed: sin I-did · Pūwon a-sā-tak a-ril-ā, a-swok-ngāi yeng a-pān Ha-wā-han-ko best cloth. he-said, his-servants tohis-father Thereupon kūt-sabit khat man-tieng-ro, a-kūt-da man-kai-ro, a-mā-hi va-choi-un-lā one put, his-hand-on ring himcause-to-wear, bringing om-lang-rai; a-hoy-ā nēk-in-lā a-hoy-ā ${
m B}ar{{
m u}}$ beng-pē-ro: a-kē-yā khonghūp remain-let-us; happilyeating Foodhappily put. shoehis-foot-on a-hong-ring-ret; vai-khat a-thi-nū ka-nāi hi-ko i-sig-ā-mo-ka-tin-ko once-more he-came-alive-again; he-died-having my-son thisbecause an-mā-nin a-tūn-ko ka-mū-ret.' Hi an-ta vai-khat a-mang-nū now they This saying I-saw-again. once-more he-lost-being an-man-hoi-yoi. they-made-merry.

a-laik-om. A-mān a-in ŭ-lien-pā loi-lay-a a-nāi Ha-wā-takan-ko Hehis-house he-was. elder fields-in his-son That-time-at a-jēd-ā. A-mān a-swok ani-lām ring a-hong-yong-tiyang khūwong Hehis-servant sound dancing he-heard. drumhis-coming-arriving-at a-ding-kēl-ā. Ha-wā-han-ko ani-tho-so?' a-ta 'I-mo khat a-kov-ā, Thereupon he-asked. is-being-done?' saying ' What he-calling, one a-hong-kir-yoi, "nat-sat ' Na-nāi-pang-pā a-lai-sāng-ā, a-swok-pan-ko 'Thy-younger-brother ke-came-returned, " illness he-answered, his-servant-male a-laik-don-ā.' a-hong kir-yoi," na-pān a-hov-ā bū a-ta mū-mag-a food he-prepared. thy-father merrily he-came-returned," saying without Ha-wā-na-khan-a-ko lūt-nwom-lāi-mā. a-lung-a-thag-a ū-lien-pān A-nāi to-enter-wished-not. Therefore the-elder getting-angry His-son a-sāng-yoi, a-pā-yēng A-mān a-vā-ma-thēm-yoi. a-ba-sūwog-a a-pān his-father-to he-answered, Hehe-entreated. he-coming-out his-father vai-khat jag-om ka-tho-wā na-sipā hi-bā i-yat-da nang kūm En-ro, even I-doing time-one thy-service thy many-in Look, years these hi-bā-dor-ā-ngal-hi ka-sap niēl-om-mā, kai na-cham my-friends disobeying-was-not, nevertheless Ithy-command kēl-tē an-khat nang-in kan-chāk-rang kan-kan-roy-ā ka-ya-lē goat-young one our-eating-for thou my-companions-with togetherlim · nū-mai yeng a-pē-yā Na-lal na-pē-mak-sē. jag-om giving toallwomen thou-gavest-not. Thy-property even na-laik-don.' a-hong-na-khan-a-ko nang-in bū a-man-mang-sū-wā na-nāi hi thou-preparedst. thou ricethis he-came-when wasting-all thy-son

Ha-wā-han-ko a-pān a-ril-ā, 'Ka-nāi, nang-ko a-ni-tin kai-lē Thereafter his-father he-said, ' My-son, thou me-with alwayslim nang-a-rang-kē. A-tūn-ko kan-om-ā, kai-yēng-ā om na-nāi-pang-pā we-remained, me-with being allthine-is. Now thy-younger-brother a-thi-yā a-ring-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko, a-mang-ret vai-khat ka-mū-yoi-kē-a-nin-ko he-died-having he-came-alive-because, he-lost-being again I-found-because kai-ni-ko a-hoy-ā kani-om-hi a-ni-yoi.' we happily to-remain it-is.'

[No. 22.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

AIMOL.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

a-lēk-om. Tūi-dung-ā Chēm-chong-sai-pā an-ta pa-sal khat Ton-ā River-at one he-was. calledman Chēm-chong-sai-pā Formerly A-lung-a-thag-a a-pēr-a-pē. Kai-kūwong-in a-ēl a-tāt. His-mind-it-angry-being it-bit. his-thigh he-sharpened. Shrimp Ār-chā a-ting a-deng-pe, a-yong-chul. khaūm Chēm-chong-sai-pā rūo-tūk it-fell, it-fell. Cockhis-back fruit-tree Chēm-chong-sai-pā cuta-ra-bū a-thāi. ha-wā-han-kē fāi-bāng a-lung-a-thak, he-broke. its-nest therefore anthis-mind-it-angry-became, a-rmai a-bēl-pē. Rūl-in a-lung-a-thak-a rül A-lung-a-thak, Its-mind-it-angry-became, snake its-tail it-stung. Snake its-mind-it-angry-becoming a-lung-a-thak-a mot-kung a-chūk-pē. A-sangal-in sangal a-ēl his-mind-it-angry-becoming plantain-root his-thigh it-bit. Boar boar sāi-pūi a-kūor-ā Bāk a-lung-a-thak-a a-fūr-ā. elephant-female her-ear-in its-mind-it-angry-becoming Bat he-destroyed. a-ma-lüm-rē, a-lüng-a-thak-a sum-tuong a-lūt-pē. Sāi-pūi-in she-caused-to-roll, her-mind-it-angry-becoming mortar it-entered. Elephant Tār-tē-pi-in a-dēng-khiyak-yoi. a-ma-lūm-in-kē tār-tē-pi in Widowit-destroyed. widow house rolling-by choi-ro.' Sum-tuong, 'Sum-tuong, lai wā-haŭ-roi-yoi, a-lüng-a-thak fine pay. Mortar, her-mind-it-angry-became went-complained, · Mortar, lai choi-ro.' 'Sāi-pūi, a-na-ma-lūm.' choi-noning, sāi-pūi-in pay.' she-caused-to-roll.' ' Elephant, fine· Fine pay-not-will, elephant choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, · Bāk. a-lūt.' 'Choi-noning, ka-kūwor-ā bāk · Pay-not-will, Bat, fine pay.' ' Pay-not-will, it-entered. my-ear-in batchoi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, lai 'Sangal, ka-kūng sangal-pān a-na-fūr-pē.' pay.' ' Pay-not-will, Boar, fine boar he-destroyed. my-root 'Choi-noning, choi-ro.' ka-ra-mai rūl-in ka-ēl a-na-chūk-pē.' ' Rūl lai ' Pay-not-will, my-tail pay. snake my-thigh it-stung. Snake fine ār-chān ' Choi-noning, lai choi ro.' fāi-bāng-in an-bēl.' ' Fāi-bāng nang cock· Pay-not-will, pay.' antsthey-stung.' ' Ant thoufine

a-thāi.' 'Ār-chā, lai choi-ro.' 'Choi-noning, a-ra-bū ka-ting-yang fine ' Cock, ' Pay-not-will, my-nest he-broke.' pay.' my-back-on a-dēng-ā ka-lung-a-thak.' 'Khaom, laichoi-ro.' khaom in 'Choi-noning, my-mind-it-angry-got.' · Fruit fruit it-falling fine pay.' 'Pay-not-will, Chēm-chong-sai-pān ka-küng a-tūk.' 'Chēm-chong-sai-pā, nang choi-ro.' lai Chēm-chong-sai-pā my-root he-cut.' ' Chēm-chong-sai-pā, thoufine pay.' 'Choi-noning, kai-kūong-in a-pēr.' 'Kai-kūong, lai choi-ro.' ka-ēl ' Pay-not-will, shrimp my-thigh it-bit. Shrimp, fine pay. Sang-läi-ma. 'Lai choi-ro, vai-khat a-ding-kēl-yoi. Sang-lāi-ma. 'A-tūn-ko Answered-not. ' Fine pay, once-more she-requested. Answered-not. ' Now kai-kūong, tūi dāi-mo na-ngam? ri-ro.' tũi lū-mo na-ngam, shrimp, tell. waterhotthou-preferrest, watercoldthou-preferrest? Kai-kūong, 'Tūi dāi ka-ngam.' Tūi dāv-ā an-ma-soi-yoi. 'Hong-thai-pā 'Water cold I-prefer.' Watercold-in they-let-go. Shrimp, 'Skilful-man kai ka-ni-yoi.' Lai-pāk a-lüng-a-thak-rē-yoi. 'Sāi-pūi yong-koi-ro, tũi I-am. ' Elephant People their-mind-it-angry-became. call, water man-dip-rai.' an-chūr-yoi, A-kāng-yoi. Kai-kūong an-thak-yoi. cause-to-suck-let-us.' It-dry-became. Shrimp they-caught, they-killed. ' U-chok-pa 'A-sūong-yoi-mo?' mē-pū-chang-ro.' 'Ka-suong yoi.' A-sūong-yoi. ' It-cooked-is?' Frogdress (-the-fish).' ' I-cooked-have.' He-cooked. 'Va-sēm-ro.' 'A-tak o-ho-mo?' ' A-tar-ngai, Omag-a. U-chok-pā, ma-chial 'Divide.' 'Flesh where-is?' Was-not. " Old-ones, Frog, salt an-lūng-a-thak-yoi. ka-ēnnā ka-chāk-yoi.' Lai-pāk An-rēng-ā I-examining I-eaten-have. People their-mind-it-angry-became. AllHa-wā-yāra ū-chok-pā-hi an-sik-pē-yā an-sig-ā an-chē-yoi. they-pinching they-departed. Therefore frogtheir-pinching-from a-ting-a-far-chūt a-om-voi. its-back-wart it-was.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

How warts came on the toad's back.

Once upon a time there was a man called Chemchongsaipa. He was sharpening his axe by the river, when a shrimp nipped him on the leg. Chemchongsaipa became angry, and cut down a khaūm tree.¹ The tree became angry, and dropped one of its fruits. The fruit fell on the back of a cock. The cock became angry, and scratched up an ants' nest. The ants became angry, and stung the tail of a snake. The snake became angry, and bit a boar on the leg. The boar became angry, and rooted up a plantain-tree. A bat (that lived in the root of the plantain-tree) became angry, and flew into

¹ Its fruit is as big as a watermelen.

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an elephant's ear. The elephant became angry, and set a mortar rolling; and the mortar as it rolled knocked down a widow-woman's house. The widow-woman became angry and began to scold.

' Mortar,' said she, ' pay a fine.'

'I won't', said the mortar. 'The elephant set me rolling.'

' Elephant, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A bat got into my ear.'

' Bat, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A boar rooted up the plantain-root which was my home.'

' Boar, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A snake bit me on the leg.'

'Snake, pay a fine.'

'I won't. Ants stung my tail.'

'Ant, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A cock scratched up my nest.'

'Cock, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A khaum-fruit fell on my back and made me angry.

' Khaum, pay a fine.'

'I won't. Chemchongsaipa cut me down.'

'Chemchongsaipa, pay a fine.'

'I won't. A shrimp nipped me on the leg.'

'Shrimp, pay a fine.'

But the shrimp remained silent.

Again she said, 'shrimp, pay a fine.'

But the shrimp remained silent. Said she:—'Would you rather (die in) hot or in cold water?'

'I would rather (die in) cold water.'

So they put him into cold water, and he (jeered at them and swam away), saying,

'I am (too) clever (for the likes of you).'

Then they all became very angry, and called the elephant, who sucked up all the water till it was dry, and then they caught the shrimp and killed him. They gave him to a toad to cook. 'Is it cooked?' said they. 'It's ready,' said the toad. 'Then carve it for us.' (He gave them nothing but the broth.) 'Where is the flesh?' There was none. 'Old fellows, in testing the flavour, I accidentally swallowed the shrimp.'

So the people became angry, and everyone pinched him (on the back) and went his way. Thus, owing to this pinching, toads have had warts on their backs ever since.

CHIRU.

The Chirus are a small tribe in the Manipur State. They are estimated to number between 500 and 1,000 souls. Most of them live in the mountains to the west of the valley, but a few Chirus are also found as a migratory tribe in the valley. Major McCulloch thought them to form a connecting link between the Songboos and the southern tribes. Their language is most closely related to Hallām, Kōm, Rāngkhōl and Langrong.

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Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Manipur. They have all been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh at Kangjup Khul. They are the only foundation for the remarks on Chiru grammar which follow:—

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent. Thus, we find khā and kha, that; $r\bar{a}ng$ and rang, for; $am\bar{a}$ -ni and a-ma-ni, they. U is always marked as long. There are apparently two diphthongs ai, one with a long \bar{a} , and another with a short a. Thus, $n\bar{a}i$, child; nai, property. Both are sometimes interchangeable with \bar{e} and i. Thus, a-rai-yoi and a-r \bar{e} -yoi, he said; $w\bar{a}k$ -ri-rang, I will go and say. O and \bar{u} seem to denote the same sound. Thus, $kh\bar{u}$ and kho, village; $r\bar{u}$ and ro, the suffix of the imperative. O is also interchangeable with $a\bar{u}$; thus, $ra\text{-}cha\bar{u}k$ and $ra\text{-}cha\bar{u}k$, buy. vowels of prefixes are often changed so as to agree with the vowels of the following syllables. Thus, a-di, two; \bar{u} - $r\bar{u}k$, six; ka- $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, my son; $k\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$, my daughter; marim, sound; milli, four; mū-lūng, mind; a-rai, he said; o-om, he was, etc. Euphonic w's and y's are generally inserted after an o and \bar{u} , or \bar{e} and i respectively. Thus, $kho\text{-}w\bar{a}$, in the village; $a-k\bar{e}-y\bar{a}$, on his foot. Final consonants are sometimes silent. Thus, $p\bar{e}k$ and $p\bar{e}$, give; $w\bar{a}k$, $w\bar{a}t$, and wa, come; $n\bar{e}k$ and ni, to eat, to swallow. Final r is often doubled; thus, thirr, iron; sa-korr, horse. In the same way we find I doubled between vowels; thus, mallai, tongue; āllā, far. This doubling is probably intended to denote the shortening of the preceding vowel. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchanged. Thus, $a-j\bar{e}m-da-n\bar{a}$, having struck; $l\bar{u}k-ta-n\bar{a}$, having drawn. L and n seem to be interchangeable in some cases. Thus, a-ni-da-lā, having been; a-jēm-da-nā, having struck. In $sh\bar{e}$ -ta- $ng\bar{a}$, having gone, ng is perhaps written for n. J and g are apparently interchangeable. Thus, jong and young, a prefix denoting motion towards; o-oyēt, in plenty; o-ojēd- \bar{a} , happily, etc. S and sh are written in the same words; thus, $sh\bar{a}k$ and sāk, to eat.

We have no information with regard to accents and tones.

Prefixes.—Most of the prefixes used in Chiru are pronominal or verbal prefixes, and will be dealt with below. \mathcal{A} is generally the possessive pronoun of the third person, but it has also a wider use in the formation of nouns and adjectives. Thus, a-ni, sun; a- $p\bar{a}$,

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man, male being; a-kai, tiger; a-thā, good; a-jēr, striped; āllā, far. Ka generally means 'my,' but it occurs without such a meaning in sūng-ka-bēk, ring; ka-pēk-lāi, he is giving. Ma is the stem of the demonstrative pronoun, but is also used before nouns and adjectives; thus, ma-rim, sound; mū-lūng, mind; ma-tūmā, young. Compare also Compound Verbs. Ra seems to occur in karr-nam, my back; ri-ming, name. The use of such prefixes seems to be relatively restricted, in comparison with Lamgāng, Kōm, etc.

Articles.—The numeral *khat*, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is denoted by the use of relative clauses, pronominal prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is often, in the case of human beings, distinguished by the use of different words. Thus, $ka-p\bar{a}$, my father; $k\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$, my mother; $a-p\bar{a}$, man; $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$, woman. The usual suffixes are $p\bar{a}$ or $ap\bar{a}$, male; and $n\bar{u}$, female; thus, $ka-n\bar{a}i-p\bar{a}ng-p\bar{a}$, my younger brother; $ka-sarr-n\bar{u}$, my sister; $ka-s\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, my son; $k\bar{u}-s\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$, my daughter. Pa and $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$ are prefixed in $pa-sa-n\bar{a}i$, boy; $n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng-sa-n\bar{a}i$, girl. The gender of animals is distinguished by adding the suffixes $ch\bar{a}$, male, and $u-n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$, female. Thus, sa-korr $ch\bar{a}$, horse; sa-korr $a-n\bar{u}-p\bar{a}ng$, mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, some word meaning 'many,' 'multitude,' etc., such as $h\bar{a}i$, $r\bar{u}k$, \bar{a} -rop, a-tām- $p\bar{u}i$, is added. Thus, a-so $\bar{u}k$ -hāi, slaves; a-pā a-tha- $r\bar{u}k$, good men; $k\bar{e}$ \bar{a} -rop, goats; sa-korr $ch\bar{a}$ a-tām- $p\bar{u}i$, horse male many, horses.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. Words such as $kh\bar{a}$, $kh\bar{a}$ -to, $kh\bar{a}$ -t \bar{u} , $l\bar{a}$, and $t\bar{u}$, all probably demonstrative pronouns, may be added in order to emphasise. Thus, kūhā tūi khā lūk-ta-nā wāk-choi-rū, well-from water that drawing bring; kai-nā a-mā a-sha-pā khā-lo ra-mo-lē tām-pūi ka-jēm-yoi, I his his-son that stripes-with much I-struck; a-mā khā-tū anaktak jēm-da-nā rūi-rū-lē khop-ro, him that well beating ropes-with bind; kai-lā bū nēk-būi-yā a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, I food eating-not dying-for I-am, I am dying here with hunger; a-kai-tū kai-ni-nā ka-ma-tor-yoi the-tiger we we-defeated, etc. The suffix $n\bar{a}$, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a-pā-nā nai lim a-sēm-pē-yoi, his father property all hedivided-gave. The Genitive is generally expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, without any suffix. Thus, sa-korr hi-lā kūm, horse this year, the years of this horse; sa-korr a-ngoi sa-farr, horse white's saddle; nang-pā in, thy-father's house. A possessive pronoun is sometimes prefixed to the governing word; thus, a-kai a-būn, thetiger its-skin. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are:ā, in, to; dā, to; ding and a-ding, to; ding-ā and a-ding-ā, from; kā-rā, from; kong, and kūng, in, among; khan, in; lē, with; lonā, on the top of; māi-kūng-ā, and māi-kūngam, before; $n\bar{u}i$ - $y\bar{a}$, under; $n\bar{u}k$ and $n\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}$, behind; $n\bar{a}$, from; $r\bar{a}ng$, for, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are generally preceded by a prefix, usually a, but sometimes also others such as ma and pi; thus, a- $th\bar{a}$, good; a-ngoi, white; ma- $t\bar{u}m$ - \bar{a} , young; pi-li- $t\bar{e}$, small. In a- $p\bar{a}$ a-tha- $p\bar{a}$ khat, man good one, the suffix $p\bar{a}$ in a-tha- $p\bar{a}$ is probably a suffix of the relative participle. Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus, a- $p\bar{a}$ a-tha- $r\bar{u}k$ ding, man good-many to, to good men. In $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$ $h\bar{a}i$ a-tha- $r\bar{u}k$, good women, there are two plural suffixes, one after the noun and one after the adjective. The particles of comparison are $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ and $nig\bar{a}$. Thus, a-di $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ a- $th\bar{a}$, two from good, better; $w\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}i$ - $n\bar{u}i$ - $g\bar{a}$ a- $rsh\bar{a}ng$, all (?) than high, highest. Tak, much, most, may be added to the adjective in order to form

a kind of absolute superlative. Thus, pon a-tha-tak, cloth best, the best cloth. In amā a-sarr-nū kha-tū a-nāi-pāng-pā-nā a-shāng-dēt, his his-sister that his-brother taller, his brother is taller than his sister, the word det is perhaps a verb meaning 'surpass.' The suffix of the agent in a-nāi-pāng-pā-nā shows that this word is the subject.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes or suffixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,-

kai, I. nang, thou. a- $m\bar{a}$, he. kai, ka, my. nang, na, thy. a- $m\bar{a}$, a, his. Plural,kai-ni, we. nang-ni, you. a-ma-ni, they.

The words $kh\bar{a}$, $l\bar{a}$, and $t\bar{u}$ may be added to the pronouns as to the nouns in order to emphasise. The genitive may be expressed by means of the short forms ka, na, and a, but also in the same way as with nouns. Thus, kai-ka-chong, of me, lit. I-my-word; nang chong, of thee, etc. The list of words gives kai-kā-ni and kai-ni, we, but only kaini occurs in the specimens. The short forms ka, na, and a, are apparently also used in the plural; thus, kai-ni ka-chong, we our-word, of us. Compare Pronominal prefixes with verbs below.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, hi-hi, and hi-la, this; khā, kha-nā, khā-to, ma-khā, and tū, that. In 'imo a-tho?' khātiyā arrdon, 'what is-being-done?' saying he asked, khātiyā must probably be corrected to khā ti-yā, that saying.

There is no Relative pronoun. The base alone is generally used as a relative participle; thus, ma-khā lai-pāk khan o-om mi khat, that country in being man one. Any other form of the verb can apparently be used in the same way, even the imperative: thus, ka-pā-nā kai-a-ding na-pē-rāng-rū nai ko-tūm-rang, my-father-by me-to thou-giveshalt property share, the share of the property which thou, my father, wilt give me. Sometimes the two clauses are put together without any connecting participle. Thus, nang nāi hi nang nai lim sūkangyor a-ding a-pēk-ā ma-māng-yoi, nang nāi hi a-wāt-lē $y\bar{a}$, thy son this thy property harlots to giving wasted, thy son this returned-when. In a- $p\bar{a}$ a-tha- $p\bar{a}$ khat, man good one, the form a-tha- $p\bar{a}$ is perhaps a relative participle. The suffix nā forms a relative participle in o-om-nā-om-nā sok-sok, being-being snail-snail. all the snails that were there.

Interrogative pronouns.—Tū-mo, who? i-mo, what? i-ranga-mo, why? i-yāt-mo, how many? i-chān-mo, how much? thus, nang ri-ming i-mo-ti, thy name what-calledis? nang nū-wā tū-nāi-mo-ni pa-sa-nāi ā-hong, thy back-at whose-son-being boy comes? whose boy comes behind you.

Indefinite pronouns.—Mi-khat-tē, any one, lit. man-one-even.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person by means of pronominal prefixes. These are ka or ka, I, we; na or nang, thou, you; a, he, she, it, they. The vowel of the prefixes is often changed. Thus, we find ki-ra-chaūk, I bought; kū-mūk-yoi-yē-lā, we saw again; nē-ra-chok, thou boughtest; o-om, they were. The prefixes are sometimes dropped, especially before other prefixes, but it is impossible to find any rule for their omission.

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Thus, kai-nā ka-jēm, I strike; a-rai, he said. The suffix lāi is often used in the same way. Thus, a-mā a-ni-lāi, he is; kai nang nāi-rang ro-hoi-lāi-maing, I thy son-for worthy-am not, I am not worthy to be thy son; mi khat tē pē-lāi-mā, man one even gave-not. In a-ma-ni a-ni-lāy-ā, they were, ā is added to this lāi. Compare Present definite.

The suffix of the Past tense is yoi; compare Rāngkhōl joi, Hallām zei, and Kōm yō, Siyin yō-ki. Thus, a-sēm-pē-yoi, he divided; a-choi-yoi, he brought; kūm hi-yāt-ni-yoi, nang sipā ka-tho-wā, years so-many-were, thy service I did, these many years I served thee. The suffix yoi is occasionally used to denote the present time; thus, a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, dying-for I-am, I am about to die. Its real meaning is 'to complete,' 'to finish.' Compare Rāngkhōl joi. These forms are, therefore, root tenses of a compound verb. Another suffix of the past tense is apparently tā. It occurs in the suffix of the conjunctive participle ta-nā, and in i-chān-mo a-la-tā, how far-is-it? Compare the use of the suffix of the past tenses tā after adjectives in Rāngkhōl.

The suffix of the *Present definite* and of the *Imperfect* is $l\bar{a}i$; thus, kai- $n\bar{a}$ ka- $j\bar{e}m$ - $l\bar{a}i$, I am, was, striking; a- $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ ching lon- \bar{a} shi- $r\bar{a}t$ so- $b\bar{u}$ ka- $p\bar{e}k$ - $l\bar{a}i$, he hill top-on cattle grass is-giving. The prefix ka in ka- $p\bar{e}k$ - $l\bar{a}i$ seems to be a transitive particle; compare Tibetan g.

The suffix of the Future is rāng or rang; thus, wāk-ri-rang, I will go and say; kai-nā a-jēm-rang, I shall strike. The suffix seems to be a postposition with the meaning for.' Thus, nang-rang, thee-for, thine; nang nāi-rāng, thy son for, to be thy son. In this way some of the forms occurring in the list may be explained. Thus, nang-nā a-jēm-rang nang-ni, thee-by striking-for thou-art, thou wilt strike; kai ni-rāng kan (i.e., probably ka-ni), I being-for I am, I shall be. Compare kai a-thi-rang kā-ni-yoi, I am about to die. In a-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-ra-so, they will strike, ra is probably identical with rang, and another suffix so is added. Compare, hower, Meithei ra.

Imperative.—The forms in No. 77 and ff. in the list of words are verbal nouns, and not imperatives. The suffix of the imperative is ro or $r\bar{u}$, and in the first person plural roi, added to the root or to the suffix $r\bar{a}ng$. Thus, $p\bar{e}$ -ro or $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{u}$, give; $\bar{e}n$ -ro, look; ma-tho-ro, put ye on; na- $p\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{a}ng$ - $r\bar{u}$, give thou; sa- $r\bar{a}ng$ -roi, let us eat.

The root alone, without any suffix, is used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, \bar{a} -hong, to come; \bar{a} -ding, to stand; ka-ning \bar{a} i a-hoi a-ni-yoi, our-glad-being merry-being it-was, we should make merry. Postpositions are freely added to this form, and in this way adverbial clauses are formed. Thus, $b\bar{u}$ $n\bar{e}k$ - $b\bar{u}i$ -y \bar{u} , food eating-not-in, with hunger; a-sing-yoi-y \bar{a} , his-to-come-to-senses-finishing-in, when he came to senses; nang $n\bar{a}i$ hi a- $v\bar{a}t$ - $l\bar{e}$ -y \bar{a} , thy son this his-coming-in, when this thy son came; ma- $m\bar{a}$ ng-s \bar{u} -li-y \bar{a} , wasting-all-in, when he had wasted all. In all these instances we have the suffix \bar{a} added to the root or to the suffixes yoi and $l\bar{a}i$ ($l\bar{e}$, $l\bar{i}$), that is to say to the verbal noun of compound verbs. Other postpositions used in the same way are khan, $lam\bar{a}$, $l\bar{e}$, $m\bar{a}$, $nakip\bar{a}$, $n\bar{a}$, and $y\bar{e}l\bar{a}$. Thus, a-ni a- $l\bar{e}k$ - $t\bar{e}$ o-om- $l\bar{e}$ -khan, days few their-being-in, when few days had past; a-hong- $lam\bar{a}$, his coming in, when he came; sok-sok $khan\bar{a}$ a- $t\bar{a}$ n a-ra-sit- $m\bar{a}$, snail that his-running his-racing-before, or perhaps: the snail did not run the race, etc. Many similar forms occur, and they may often be as well translated as adverbial and conjunctive participles. The root alone is also occasionally used as an Infinitive of purpose; thus, vok

sēn amā loi-pūk wā a-mā-kha ma-sē-yoi, pigs to-tend his fields to him he-sent. The usual suffix of this form is, however, rāng or rāng-ā. Thus, a-tha-na-rāng-ā, to be; a-jēm-na-rāng-ā, to strike. Compare Future. Instead of rāng we find ro in ka-lom-hāi-lē a-hoi-ning-ā sā-ro, my-friends-with merrily eating-for, in order to make merry with my friends.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under the head of Relative pronouns. A Noun of agency seems to be formed by adding hāi; thus, loi-nēi-hāi, a cultivator; kē-bēr-sēn-hāi, a shepherd.

Adverbial participles are formed by means of the postposition \bar{a} ; thus, o-o-jedā, merrily; a-hoi-ning-ā, happy-mind-in, happily. Sometimes no suffix is added; thus, o-o-yēt, in plenty; na-mak, ill-not-being, safe and sound. The suffix \bar{a} also forms a kind of Conjunctive participles. Compare Verbal noun, above. Thus, a-pā-nā a-mūk-yoi-yā, nū-ma-pok-yoi-yā, wāk-tan-ā, ring ro-ko-tho-wā a-tūm-pē, his father having-seen-him, having-pitied, having run, neck embracing kissed. It will be seen that \bar{a} may be added to the suffix yoi. It is added to tāi in a-shē-lāy-ā, gone. Other suffixes of this participle are lā and nā, often added to the suffix of the past tense tā. Thus, a-ni-da-lā, having been; jēm-da-nā khop-ro, having struck bind; lūk-ta-nā, having drawn, and probably also shē-tang-ā, having gone; a-shē-a-lā, going; a-ni-na-wo-lā, being. Compare Meithei.

There is no Passive voice. The absence of the suffix of the agent is sufficient to indicate the passive. Thus, i-mo a-tho, what is-being-done? kai khā-lo na-jēm, me thou strikest, I am struck; kai khā-lo a-jēm-rang ni-ti, me striking-for thou-sayest, I shall be struck.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the sense. Thus, a-sēm-pē, he divided-gave, he allotted; wāk-ri-rang, go-say-will, I will go and say; wāk-tan-ā, goingrunning; wāk-choi-tan-ā, going-bringing-running, bringing quickly. Several prefixes are used. Thus, hoi seems to denote motion from; thus, hoi-rū-ti, to answer. Jong and young, which are no doubt identical, mean motion towards. Thus, jong-koi, to call: young-loi, to take. Ma forms causatives; thus, ma-mang-yoi, he spent; bu nang-ma-nek, food thou-causest-to-be-eaten, thou givest a feast; ma-sē-yoi, he caused to go, he sent. Some prefixes begin with r, but I cannot see the exact meaning of them; thus, archin, he joined; ardon, he asked; a-ro-om, he was; a-ro-jēt, he heard; ro-ko-tho-wā, embracing, etc. Other modifying words are added after the verb. The chē in na-pē-mak-chē, thou gavest not, does not form a compound with the preceding verb, but is identical with Lushēi chē, which is said to be added to verbs in order to indicate the object; thus, ka-vēl-angchē, I will strike thee. Causatives seem to be formed by adding ma-sak; thus, ri-sē-masak-ro, cause him to wear. Yot forms Desideratives; thus, i-sak-yot, he wished to eat. Other additions are kir, back; rēt, again; som, together; sū, entirely, etc.

The Negative particle is mak, mā, or maing; thus, tan-lāk-mak, did not run; pē-lāi-mā, did not give; ro-hoi-lāi-maing, I am not worthy. Another negative būi, corresponding to Khongzāi pōi, occurs in a-thā-būi, good-not, bad; bū nēk-būi-ya, food-eating-not-in, with hunger. In one instance we find a negative tap, probably corresponding to Meithei ta; thus, ka-ra-ngāi-tap, I disobeyed not.

The Interrogative particle is mo.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the direct one.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

CHIRU.

Specimen I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

kong-kārā anāi ma-tūmā a-pā khat nāi apā adi o-om. Adi M_i one (-of) child male two were. Two amongst-from child younger his-father Man 'ka-pā, ka-pā-nā kai-a-ding na-pē-rāng-rū ading a-rai, to-be-given said, 'my-father, my-father-by me-to property my-share-for adiyā na-pē-rāng-rū. A-pā-nā a-nāi nai \lim a-sēm-pē-yoi. DaysHis-father his-child two-for property all he-divided-gave. alēktē o-om-lē-khan a-nāi matūmā lām-lā laipāk khat $d\bar{a}$ lim remaining his-child younger far country his-wealth Makhā laipāk khan tha-mak-a-khan-ā nai a-choi-yoi. lim ma-mang-yoi. carried-and-went. That country in property all wickedly laipāk khan Amā-nā nai lim ma-māng-sū-liyā makhā bū atang-hai-yoi, rice dear-became, propertyallwasting-after thatcountry inHeAmā-nā makhā laipāk ma-khan amā a-dong-yoi. khan o-om mi in residing person thereupon he became-wretched. Hethatcountry amā laipūk wā amā-kha khat-lē a-rchūn-yoi. Mi khā wok sēn a-to joined-together. thatfieldhim Person swineto-pasture histomi khat tē Wok bū sē-kha amā isāk-yot ma-sē-yoi. to-eat-wished man oneeven sent. Swine's food even-that he amā-nā ahēn-dā a-rē-yoi, 'ka-pā adingā sēlo pē-lāi-mā. A-sing-yoi-yā to-himself said, 'my-father from hired did-not-give. Becoming-sensible he bū nēk-būiyā athi-rang Kai-lā hāi o-oyēt a-sāk-yoi. his-servants many in-abundance are-eating. I-on-the-other-hand rice eating-not to-die kā-ni-yoi. Kai ka-pā ading shē-tangā wāk-ri-rang, "Ka-pā, kai Pathin ading I-am-about. I my-father to having-gone will-say, "my-father, I God kai nang nāi-rāng ro-hoinang māi-kūngam kā-lān-yoi; kā-lān-yoi, have-done wrong; I your child-to-be worthybefore have-done-wrong, you lāi-maing. Kaitū nang soūk angā nā-tēt-rāng-ro." Amā-nā athoiyā getting-up his-father Heyour servant like keep." Mea-pā-nā a-mā-kha a-mūk-yeiyā, numapok-yoiya, Āllā ading a-wa-yoi. having-compassion, seeing, From-afar-off his-father him ading a-rai-yoi, 'Ka-pā, a-pā wāk-tan-ā, ring rokothowā, a-tūmpē. A-nāi-nā 'my-father, said, running, neck embracing, kissed. His-child his-father to

nang māi-kūngam kā-lān-voi, kai nang kai Pathin ading kā-lān-yoi, before have-done-wrong, I have-done-wrong, you I Godto ading a-rai-yoi Makhan apā-nā asoūk nāi-rāng ro-hoi-lāi-maing.' child-to-be worthy-am-not.' Thereupon his-father his-servants many said, risē-ma-sak-ro; sūngkabēk a-tha-tak wāk-choi-tan-ā ka-nāi-khā khat on pon let-wear; ring bringing-quickly my-child ' garment ma-teng-ro, a-keyā khonghūp ma-tho-ro. Ka-nāi $_{
m hi}$ a-thivā, a-khūt-dā My-child this having-died put. his-feet-on shoesput, his-hand-on atūn kū-mūk-yoi-yē-lā; kai-ni o-ojēdā wai-khat a-hong-ring-rēt-yoi-yē-lā; a-thāngā, being-found; we having-been-lost, now becoming-alive; Atūntū ama-ni ahoiyā o-om-yei. sa-rāng-roi ni-rāng-roi.' happily remained. theylet-us-eat let-us-drink.' Thus

ŭ-liën-chang loipūk-ā a-ro-om. Amā-nā a-in-ā Khā-faroi-khan anāi field-in was. Hehis-house-to his-child elder That-time-at a-hong-lam-ā khong ma-ring ālam a-ro-jēt. Amā-nā a-soūk khat a-jong-koiyā, He his-servant one sound dancing heard. drumin-coming. khā-tiyā a-rrdon. Ma-khan a-soūk-pā kha-nā a-rū-ma-sāng-yoi, atho? 'imo Thereupon his-servant that 'what is-being-done?' saying asked. a-hong-kir-yoiyā nang pā-nā ' na-nāi-pang-pā a-hong-kir-yoi. Amā-nā na-mak not-being-ill having-returned your father He'your-brother has-returned. Achong hi a-jēt-lē amā-nā a-sāng-ā ā-mū-lūng ma-něk-yoi.' ningāi-yoiyā bū angry his-mind rice caused-to-be-eaten.' Word this hearing he a-pā wāk-sūk-wā Makhā-sikhanlo lūt-lāi-mā. in a-hāng-ā his-father This-reason-for coming-out entered-not. house being-angry. ading a-rū-ma-sāng-yoi, 'ēn-ro, apā Ma-khan anāi-nā a-nāi-khā a-do-yoi. Thereupon his-child father answered, his-child entreated. wai-khat tēam nang chong kai ka-thowā kūm hi-yāt-ni-yoi nang sipā words I once evenyouryour service in-doing years so-many-were ka-lom-hāi-lē a-hoi-ning-ā sā-ro ka-ra-ngāi-tap; atūnom nang-nā my-friends-with merrily to-eat goat-young you have-not-disobeyed; yetnai lim na-pē-mak-chē. Nang nāi hi nang ading kai khat team your wealth child this allYour have-not-given. tome one even hi a-wāt-lēyā nang-nā ma-māng-yoi, nang-nāi bũ a-pēk-ā sūkāngyor-ading your-child this on-coming: you rice wasted, by-giving harlot-to a-rai-yoi, 'ka-nāi, nang-lā kai-lē a-pā-nā nang-ma-nēk.' Ma-khan said, 'my-child, you me-with Thereupon his-father you-caused-to-be-eaten.' nang-rang; \lim nang adingā om na-omsom. Kai achat-boipeda allyours; your being > Me tolive-together. at-all-times wai-khat a-hong-ring-ret-yoi; nāi-pang-pā a-ma-khā a-thiyā, having-died, again has-become-alive; having-been-lost, thatwai-khat kū-mūk-rēt-yoi; ma-khā-si-khan-lo kai-ni ka-ningāi a-ni-voi.' a-hoi we to-be-glad to-be-merry it-is-proper:" has-been-found; this-reason-for again

[No. 24.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

CHIRU.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

a-tān-a-ra-sit-mā soksok Akai-lē soksok a-tān-ra-sit, soksok kha-nā Tiger-with snailthatrunning-race-before snailssnailran-a-race, ading, 'akai-nā na-koi-lē akhat-khat-nā hoi-rū-ti-ro,' a-rai-yoi. hāi ' tiger-by when-called one-after-another give-answer, said. allto, soksok-lē Akailē khanā a-tān-ra-sit. Soksok khanā amünküng thatsnail-with Tiger-with ran-race. Snail thathis-place-in khanā · tan-lāk-mak. A-kai o-om, khanā a-thēndēyā a-tān-ā soksok remained, did-not-move. Tigerthatthatalonerunning snailkhanā makhā dingā soksok khanā hoi-rū-tho, a-kai khanā a-koi-na-kip-ā a-koi, called, thatplace insnailthatanswered, tiger thato-om-nā-om-nā soksok khanā hoi-rū-tho; khā-ti-khan a-thendeva a-tān-ā whoever-was snailthat answered; in-this-way aloneby-running a-sohāiyā a-thi-yoi. Ma-khan, ʻa-kai-tū kai-ni-nā ka-ma-tor-yoi, a-ningāi-yoi-yā getting-tired he-died. Thereupon, ' tiger defeated, being-glad soksok hāi akai achüngā a-lonnā akai abūn khā om-voi. snailsalltigeron-the-back-of treadingtigerskinthatstriped remained. Soksok-nä a-lonnā kha-na-hi-ti a-tar-hāi iraiyā khanā ki-jēt. Snails treading-on it-was-caused old-men having-told thisis-known.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once on a time a tiger and a snail ran a race. The snail had previously arranged with all the other snails that, whenever the tiger should call him as he ran, he should be answered by any snail met by him in the way.

Accordingly when the tiger started the snail did not move a single step from his place. The tiger, after running alone for some time, called the snail, but was answered by another snail, who was waiting for him in the neighbourhood.

The foolish tiger, mistaking him for the same snail, continued running till he was quite tired out and fell dead on the ground.

Now all the snails gathered in joy and crawled on the dead tiger, leaving stripes on his skin as they crawled along.

This, the old men say, is the reason why the tigers have striped skins.

KOLREN OR KOIRENG.

The Kolrens or Koirengs are a small tribe in the State of Manipur. According to Mr. Damant, they dwell in eight small villages on the hills north of the valley, and number about 600. They are also found as a migratory tribe in the valley itself. Kolren is the name which the tribe gives to itself, and Koireng is probably a Manipuri corruption of this name. The Kwoirengs or Līyāngs, which have been dealt with under the Nāgā-Kuki group, are a different tribe, and the languages of both have very little in common.

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Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Short note on the tribe on p. 238.

The Kolren dialect in essential points agrees with Hallam, Kom, Rangkhol, Langrong, etc.; in some instances most closely with Khongzai. Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Kharang Koireng village in the Manipur valley. They are the only foundation of the remarks on the Kolren dialect which follow.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of the prefixes have apparently a rather indistinct sound. Thus, we find $ka-p\bar{a}$ and $ki-p\bar{a}$, my father; ma-tik, worthy; but $mi-t\bar{u}m$, young; ki-ni, two; but kū-rūk, six. This sound might perhaps be denoted by means of an a above the line; thus, k^a - $p\bar{a}$, my father. U is always marked as long, but it is certainly short in many instances. It seems to be interchangeable with o; thus, pē-ro and pē-rū, give. It is sometimes also interchanged with oi and $\bar{u}o$; thus, soi, so, and $s\bar{u}$, entirely; $s\bar{u}ok$, $s\bar{u}k$, and sok, come out. In a similar way ai is interchangeable with e; thus, chaiand $ch\bar{e}$, go; hai, and $h\bar{e}$, a verbal prefix denoting motion towards. \bar{E} and $i\bar{e}$ interchange in yiēng-ā and yēng-ā, from. When a postposition beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in a vowel, there is usually a contraction. Thus, $a-p\bar{a}n$ for $a-p\bar{a}-in$, by the father. A euphonic y is inserted after \bar{e} and i; thus, $a\text{-}ch\bar{e}\text{-}y\bar{a}$, going; $lai\text{-}y\bar{a}$, in the fields. The diphthong $\bar{u}o$ is often written $\bar{u}vo$; thus, $k\bar{u}vorr$, ear; $p\bar{u}von$, cloth; $s\bar{u}vok$, $s\bar{u}ok$, $s\bar{u}k$, and sok, to come out, etc. Final consonants are occasionally silent; thus, $p\bar{e}k$ and $p\bar{e}$, give; $n\bar{u}k$ and $n\bar{u}$, back, etc. Double m is sometimes pronounced almost as single; thus, we find omak for om-mak, is not. The sound of h seems to be rather faint. We find it dropped in some instances in the second specimen, after a preceding n; thus, an-ong $s\bar{u}wok$ for an-hong- $s\bar{u}wok$, they came out. Final n seems to be occasionally dropped; thus, a-wa-mi-thēm-yai, he entreated; ki-min-chē-yai, he sent. The prefixes mi and min in these words are no-doubt identical. Final m seems to be interchangeable with ng; thus, ram and rang, place; cham and chong, word. Ng seems to mark a faint nasal sound in nūng-tiēng or nūk-tiēng, behind; maong and mao, not, etc. B and w are interchangeable in a-won, his belly; ka-bon, my belly. The b in such words is due to the common pronunciation of w in Eastern Indo-Aryan vernaculars.

Prefixes and suffixes.—Most suffixes are used in order to effect the inflection of nouns and verbs, and will be dealt with below. The same is the case with many prefixes. These latter are especially often used before verbs, and their proper meaning cannot always be ascertained. Some prefixes seem to have a rather wide meaning. Thus, the prefix a, which usually seems to be identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person, is used in the formation of nouns and adjectives. Thus, a-nai, property; a- $n\bar{a}rr$, nose; a- $l\bar{a}m$, dancing; a- $l\bar{a}k$, far. A prefix beginning with k occurs in numerals and verbs; thus, ki-ni, two; kan- $th\bar{u}m$, three; $k\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}k$, six; $k\bar{e}rr$ - $th\bar{e}$, to arise; $k\bar{e}$ -hai-thai, heard. A prefix ma or mi occurs in ma-tik, worthy; mi- $t\bar{u}m$, young; milli, four, etc. Compare Compound verbs.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *khat*, one, is used as an Indefinite article, and prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative clauses supply the place of the Definite article.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus, ki-nū-mai, wife, lit. my wife; a-mit, eye, lit. his eye.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. It is, when necessary, distinguished by means of suffixes, or, in the case of human beings, also by using different words. Thus, ki- $p\bar{a}$, my father: ka- $n\bar{u}$, my mother: pasal, man; $n\bar{u}$ -mai, woman. $P\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{u}$ are the usual suffixes in the case of human beings; thus, cha- $p\bar{a}$, son; cha- $n\bar{u}$, daughter. In No. 101 we find the form ki- $p\bar{a}$ khat- $p\bar{a}$, my-father one-male. The $p\bar{a}$ in khat- $p\bar{a}$ is, however, perhaps the suffix of a relative participle. Compare a-cha- $p\bar{a}$ \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, his son-male old-male-being, his elder son. The usual suffixes in the case of animals are chal and tang, male, and pi or api, female. Thus, sakorr chal, horse: sa korr api, mare: $\bar{u}i$ -tang, dog; $\bar{u}i$ -pi, bitch.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc., is added. Thus, a-soūk hāi, his servant all, his servants; nū-mai a-sā an-tam, woman good many, good women.

Case. - The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Ko, probably a demonstrative pronoun, is sometimes added to the noun in order to emphasise it. Thus, ha-wā chong hin Kol-rēn-ko a-tam sūwok-maong, that reason for Kolrēns many came-out-not, therefore many Kolrens did not come out. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is usually added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, a-pān a-nai pūm-pāng a-cha-pā ki-ni yiēng a-sēm-pēk-yai, his father his property all his sons two to he-divided-gave. The Genitive is usually expressed by putting the governed before the governing word. Thus, hi-wā sa-korr hi-ko kūm, this horse this year, the years of this horse; ni-pā in-ā, thy father's house-in. The governed word is sometimes repeated before the governing one by means of a possessive pronoun. Thus, pasal khat a-cha-pā, man one his-sons; ka-bon-a-chām- \bar{a} , my-belly-its-hunger-in, with hunger. A suffix $t\bar{a}$, probably meaning 'belonging to,' 'being,' is sometimes added to the governed noun. Thus, ka-pā-tā sē-lo a-soūk hāi, my-father's hired servants all. This suffix is also used in Lushēi and connected languages, especially when the governing word is understood. Compare the corresponding sentence in the English original 'how many hired servants of my father's.' Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are :- \bar{a} , in, to, on; in, in; kārā, from; kūngnoyā, under; lē, together with, by means of; mā-tiyēng, mā-tiēng, and

 $m\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , before; $n\bar{u}ng$ - $tiy\bar{e}ng$ and $n\bar{u}k$ - $ti\bar{e}ng$, behind; $s\bar{u}ng\bar{a}$, in; $yi\bar{e}ng$, to; $yi\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{a} , from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are usually preceded by one of the prefixes a and mi. Thus, a- $l\bar{a}k$, far; mi- $t\bar{u}m$, younger. A-nai-tak- \bar{a} , near, is an adverbial expression, lit. 'near-much-in.' A suffix $p\bar{a}$, probably forming a relative participle, is sometimes added. Thus, mi- $t\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, young-being; \bar{u} - $p\bar{a}$, old-being. The original verbal force of the adjectives appears in forms such as pasal- $p\bar{a}$ a- $s\bar{a}$ an-tam, man good many, where the prefix an in an-tam is identical with the plural pronominal prefix used with verbs. Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify; thus, a-cha- $p\bar{a}$ mi- $t\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$, his-son the-younger; a- $l\bar{a}k$ lai- $p\bar{a}k$ kha-lai-

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Ki in ki-ni, kan in kan-thum, etc., are probably generic prefixes. Compare Tibetan $g\tilde{n}is$, two; gsum, three, and similar forms in several Bodo and Nāgā dialects. Chai is another prefix used when the number applies to money. Thus, $dangk\bar{a}$ chai-ni, two rupees. Other generic prefixes do not occur in the specimens.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

nang, thou.	a - $m\bar{a}$, he.
na, ni, thy.	a - $m\bar{a}$, a , his.
nang-ta, thine.	a - $m\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}$, his.

Plural,-

kai-ni, we. nang-ni, you. an-mā-ni, they. kai-ni-tā, our. nang-ni-tā, your. an-mā-ni-tā, their.

Demonstrative pronouns such as $h\bar{a}$ and ko, that, are often added to the personal pronouns in order to emphasise; thus, $a-m\bar{a}-h\bar{a}$, him; $an-m\bar{a}-ni-ko$, they. The objective case may be formed by adding chi to the verb; thus, $ni-p\bar{e}-mak-chi$, thou didst not give me. The genitive is formed in the same way as with substantives or by means of the possessive pronouns. Thus, kai-ni chong, our word, of us; nang $na-sip\bar{a}$, thou thy-service, thy service; ni-ming, thy name, etc.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi, hi-wā, and hi-wā hi-ko, this; hā and ha-wā, that. Ko, which is often added to nouns and pronouns, is probably a demonstrative pronoun. Thus, \bar{u} -pā hāi chong-ko, old all word-that, the tale of old people is the following. Han-ko seems to mean 'that' in nini-tho hanko ang-sik-mo-ni, you-done that what-for-is? why are you doing these things. In ha-wā-han-ko, thereupon, han-ko seems to be for hā-in-ko, that-in.

There are no Relative pronouns. The relative participle is usually formed without any suffix and is identical with the form used to denote present and past times. Thus, a-mā ram-ā a-om pasal khat, that place-in being man one; wok yiēng a-pē cha-wāi, pigs

to given husks; nini-tho han-ko, you-done that, that which you are doing; $kain b\bar{a}n$ -sik-a-ni a-nai ki- $t\bar{u}m$ ha- $w\bar{a}$, me-by getting-for-being property share that, the share of the property which I shall get; $y\bar{a}o$ - $kh\bar{a}l$ -pasal, cattle-tending-man, shepherd. A suffix $p\bar{a}$ has been mentioned in connexion with adjectives. Thus, a-cha- $p\bar{a}$ mi- $t\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{a}$ ha- $w\bar{a}$, his-son younger that. Another suffix is $n\bar{a}$ in mi-ring a-hong-sok- $n\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{u}rr$ -pi ha- $w\bar{a}$, men coming-out hole that, the hole through which the people might have come out. This $n\bar{a}$ is common in connected dialects. In Lai the corresponding suffix is $n\bar{a}k$, which is used to form relative participles, compound nouns, etc. In na-nai-nak, thy property, we probably have the same suffix, nai-nak being derived from nai, to have. Compare Lai ka- $n\bar{a}k$, road, from kal, to go.

Interrogative pronouns.—Khoi-mo and khoy- \bar{e} -ni, who? ang- \bar{e} and ang-mo, what? ang-sik-mo and ang-sik- \bar{e} -ni, why? i-y $\bar{a}t$ -mo and ang-y $\bar{a}t$ -mo, how many? Thus, ni- $n\bar{u}k$ -ti \bar{e} ng khoi ch \bar{a} mo a-w \bar{a} , thee-behind whose boy comes? ni-ming ang-mo-nti (i.e., ang-mo ni-ti), thy name what-do-you-call? I-y $\bar{a}t$ -mo contains another stem i; compare i-mo, what? in R \bar{a} ngkh \bar{o} l, etc. A pronoun $t\bar{u}$ -mo, who? may be inferred from $t\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ m, anyone.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—ka and ki, I; kin, we: na and ni, thou; nin, nina and nini, you: a, he, she, it; an and ana, they. The final vowels in nina, nini, and ana, are probably only an inorganic vocalic sound inserted between concurrent consonants in order to make the pronunciation easier.

Thus, kai ki-chai, I am; pa-sal khat a-cha-pā ki-ni an-om, man one his-sons two theywere. A-ni, it is, it was, is sometimes added, apparently in order to emphasise that the action really takes place. Thus, a-ni-ti-a-ni, he-said-it-is, he said indeed; ka-nē-ri-chok-a-ni, I-bought-it-is, I bought indeed.

A suffix \bar{a} is sometimes added. Thus, kai-ni-ko a- $f\bar{u}t$ - $p\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} -ko Pa- $thi\bar{e}n$ $kh\bar{u}r$ -a kin-am-a, we at-first God's netherland-in we-were. This suffix is probably a copula or verb substantive. In a-tam an-ong- $s\bar{u}k$ -o, many they-came-out, we have apparently a suffix o used in a similar way. Compare Introduction, p. 7, above.

The suffix of the *Past tenses* is *yai*. Thus, *a-sēm-pēk-yai*, he-divided-gave. *Yai* probably means 'complete,' 'finish'; compare Rāngkhōl *jōi*. Hence it may also be used to denote the present time when the action is denoted as a completed or established fact. Thus, *thi-rong ka-ti-yai*, dying-for I-have-said, I am about to die; *ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai*, I-worthy-am-no-more.

A Present definite and an Imperfect are effected by adding the verb om, to be, to remain, to the principal verb. Om is, in this form, apparently used as an impersonal verb, and the principal verb takes the form of a participle or verbal noun. Thus, kain ki-wēl-ā a-om, me-by my-striking-in it-is, I am striking; kain nang cham ki-ngāi-mak-nā omak, me-by thy word my-disobeying was not; kain ki-wēl-ā a-om-yai, I was striking.

The Future is formed by adding ing, sik, and rang, all probably postpositions meaning 'for,' 'in order to' and conveying the force of a future or an imperative. To these forms are added the verb ni, to be, and another verb which has the forms $t\bar{a}$, $t\bar{e}$, and ti, and probably corresponds to Lushëi ti, to say, to do, to work towards. Thus, wa-chēng-ki-tā, going-for-I-saying, I-will-go; wa-ril-ing-ki-tē, I will say; kai-ni a-

hoi-yā om-sik-a-ni, we happily being-for it-is, we should be happy; thi-rong-ka-ti-yai, dying-for-I-said, I am dying. These forms apparently consist of an infinitive of purpose or imperative and the verbs ni and ti. Analogous forms occur in connected languages such as Hallām, Khongzāi, Pānkhū, or Mhār. Compare above, p. 196. In Khongzāi the future is formed by adding $t\bar{e}$ to the principal verb. This verb $t\bar{e}$ may then be inflected, by means of the ordinary pronominal prefixes, in person; thus, nang-in wonāng-na-tē, thou wilt strike. It seems to be different in Kolrēn, if we can trust the list of words which contains forms such as nang-ni (i.e., nang-in) ni-wāl-ing kē-tē, thou wilt strike, and adds kē-te to the form wēl-ing in all persons and numbers. $K\bar{e}$ -tē must then be a compound verb with a prefix $k\bar{e}$, before which the usual pronominal prefixes are dropped. The suffix ing seems to be related to $\bar{e}ng$ or $d\bar{e}ng$ in khodēng a-thē-yai, he fell in want. Sik also occurs in forms such as ang-sik-mo-ni, why-is-it? $p\bar{u}m$ -pāng nang-nai-sik, all thy property-for, it will all become thy-property, etc.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is ro or $r\bar{u}$, and in the first person plural roi; thus, $p\bar{e}$ -ro and $p\bar{e}$ -ru, give; cha-in- $l\bar{a}$ om-roi, eating let-us-remain. In $k\bar{u}$ -ti khat min- $tiy\bar{e}ng$ -ro, ring one cause-(him-)to-put-on, the suffix ro seems to be added to the future suffix ing or $\bar{e}ng$. Another suffix o seems to occur in $l\bar{u}t$ -o a-ti- $n\bar{u}m$ -a- $d\bar{a}$ -yai, 'enter' saying-evenhe-refused, he would not go in.

The root alone is used as an Infinitive or Verbal Noun. Thus, kai-ni-wēl a-sā, my-striking good-is, I may strike; ni-cha-pā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai, thy son to-be I-worthy-am-no more. The past tense in yai is, in the same way, used as a past verbal noun before postpositions. Such are added in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, ni-a-lēk-a-lak om-ā, days few being-in, when few days had passed; a-ching-yai-yā, hiscoming-to-senses-finishing-in, when he had come to senses; ne-hong-pek-a, his-comingtime-at, when he came; a-mang-so-nū, his-wasting-all-after, when he had wasted all; chong ha-wā a-thai-dang-ā, word that his-hearing-in, when he heard this word. The forms ka-chē, go; a-chā-yē, eat, etc., in No. 77 and ff, are probably verbal nouns. There are no instances of their use in the specimens. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is sik; thus, ki-sūwan-lē kē-roi-lēyā a-hoi-yā ki-chāk-sik, my-friends-with together merrily my-eating-for, in order that I might feast with my friends. The forms chang-sik-a-ni, to be, and ni-wēl-sik-a-ti, to strike, are compound forms and seem literally to mean 'being-for-it-is,' and 'striking-for-he-says.' An imperative in connection with the participle of ti, to say, may also be used in order to denote the purpose. Thus, $pasal-p\bar{a}$ ha-wā wok yong-khāl-ro ki-ti a-mā lai-yā a-mā-hā ki-min-chē-yai, man that 'pigs tend' saying his fields-to him sent.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned in connexion with Relative pronouns. Adverbial participles are formed by adding the postposition \bar{a} ; thus, a-hoi-yā, merrily; na-lai-sa-lai-yā, safely. The same form is also used as a Conjunctive participle; thus, a-mang-yai-yā wai-khat ki-bān-yai, he-lost-having-been again foundwas. The root alone is also used in this way; thus, lūt-o a-ti-nūm-a-dā-yai, 'enter' saying-even-he-refused; wok yong-khāl-ro ki-ti ki-min-chē-yai, 'pigs tend' saying he sent. The suffix in-lā forms a conjunctive participle which is substituted for the first of two co-ordinate imperatives. Thus, a-sa-tak pūwon hai-choinlā ki-cha-pā min-bāng-ro, best cloth bringing my-son cause-to-wear.

There is no Passive voice. Thus, wok yiēng a-pē cha-wāi, pigs to given husks; a-bān-yai-yā, he has been found again. The context, and the absence of the suffix of the agent, show that such forms have a passive meaning. I cannot properly analyse the forms kai-yē ni-wēl, I am struck; kai-yē ni-wēl-yai, I was struck; kai-yē ni-wēl-hi-ka-ti, I shall be struck. Kai-yē seems to mean 'concerning me.'

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. Thus, a-sēm-pēk-yai, he divided-gave; a-hong-kir-yai, he-came-he-returned, he came back; an-ong-sūwok, they-came-went-out, they came out. There are, especially, several prefixes. Hai and hē seem to denote motion towards; thus, hai-choi, to bring; hai-koi, to call; hē-min-to-ro, put on him. Kē occurs in verbs such as kērrthē, to arise; kē-hai-thai, he heard. It does not appear to add anything to the meaning. The same is the case with ki in forms such as ki-ti, saying; ki-min-chē-yai, he sent. Laik, lai, and la seem to be different forms of a verb which perhaps means 'to be.' Thus, a laik-om, he was; kai ki lai-chang-chang, I was; kai ki la-chang, I am. The prefix min forms causatives. Thus, ki-min-chē-yai, he caused to go, he sent; min-bāng-ro, cause to wear, etc. A prefix na, perhaps corresponding to the Mikir defining prefix nang, occurs in tū-nūm na-pē-pēk-mao-yai, anyone gave not. Another prefix nē is found in ni-cha-pā hi nē-hong $p\bar{e}k-\bar{a}$, thy son this came-when. It is perhaps connected with a-nai, near. It is combined with another prefix ri in $n\bar{e}$ -ri-chok, to buy. Ni is prefixed to several transitive verbs; thus, a-ni-wēl, he strikes; a-ni-ti-a-ni, he-said-it-is, he said indeed. Wa is a verb meaning 'to go,' 'to come.' It is often prefixed to other verbs and seems to convey the idea of motion; thus, a-wa-tān-ā, running; a-wa-mi-thēm·yai, he entreated, etc. Yong seems to mean motion from, away; thus, yong-thal-ro, draw (water from the well); a-yong-mū, he caught sight of (him); yong-khāl-ro, go and tend (pigs), etc. The verb khāl, to tend, seems to be connected with Lushēi kal, to go, and to represent a well-known principle for the formation of causatives by means of aspiration of the initial consonant. Desideratives are formed by adding nāwom, to wish; thus, a-chā-nāwom-tak, he-to-eatwished much. Potentiality is denoted by adding thai; thus, miring hai sok-thai-mak-a, people all come-out-could-not. Soi, so, and sū, seem to mean 'entirely'; sūom, together; tak, much, etc.

The Negative particles are mak and mao or maong; thus, ni-mak, is-not, no; ni-pē-mak-chi, thou-gavest-not-to-me; Kol-rēn-ko a-tam sūwok-maong, Kolrēns many came-out-not. Note the reduplication of the verb in na-pē-pēk-mao-yai, did not give.

The Interrogative particle is mo. Compare Interrogative pronouns.

The usual Order of Words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object usually follows the direct one.

[No. 25.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KOLRÉN OR KOIRENG.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

anom. Anmāni kārā achapā mitūmpā Pasal khat achapā kini kini Them from his-son younger Man his-sons twohad. twoone 'kapā, yieng a-ni-ti-a-ni, kain bān-sik-a-ni anai kitūm hawā apā that his-father to said, 'my-father, by-me to-be-received goods share that Apān anai pūmpāng achapā kini yieng kai yieng na-pe-ru. give.' His-father his-goods allhis-sons twoa-sēm-pēk-yai. Ni alēk-alak $om\bar{a}$ achapā mitumpā anai pümpäng a-few remaining his-son younger his-property he-divided-gave. Days pūmpāng hawā laipāk achēyaiyā a-choi-soi-yai alāk khat-ā anai distant country having-gone his-property all that carrying a-to pūmpāng hawā amangso-nū a-ram-ā pūwo-mag-ā a-mang-soi-yai. Anai His-wealth allthat wasting-after place-in rice wickedly wasted. Hawā-hanko khodēng-a-thē-yai. Amān amā a-lai-lū. amā atam became-wretched. Hethat place-in Thereupon he became-dear. very an-kiy-archūn-yai. Pasalpā hawā viēng achēvā wok pasal khat a-om going Man thatto joined-together. swine residing man ki-min-chē-yai. Wok yieng ape kiti amā laiyā $am\bar{a}h\bar{a}$ yong-khāl-ro Swine him sent. togiven saying . hisfield-to tūnūm na-pē-pēk-mao-yai. A-ching-yai-yā a-cha-nūwom-tak, chawai rangam did-not-give. Becoming-sensible husks he-to-eat-wished-much, anyone hāi ahoiyā an-chāk-ā amān athaibēyā a-ni-ti-a-ni, 'kapā-tā asoūk sēlo 'my-father's hired his-servants all happily feeding to-himself said, thi-rong-ka-ti-yai. Kai an-cha-niyang-yai, kaiko ka-bon-a-chām-ā they-eating-living-were, I my-stomach-its-hunger-with am-about-to-die. I my-father yiēng wa-chēng-ki-tā wa-ri-ling-ki-tē, "kapā, kai Pathiēn māi-kūngā nang-māi-kūngā you-before "my-father, I*before* will-say, togoing nichapā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai. Kai ni-souk khat kilēmalē-yai, worthy-am-not. Me your-servant one have-done-wrong, your-son to-be yieng a-wa-yai, alak rangā tūkā ni-tēt-ro." Amān akērrthēyā apā place-in came. far keep." He arising his-father to like

a-yong-mū, a-ning-a-si-yaiyā, a-wa-tān-ā, a-ring a-omā his-mind-it-pitying running, his-neck embracing, he-remaining his-father he-saw, kai Pathien yieng a-wa-ril-yai, 'kapā, apā Achapā hawā avok-pē. God my-father, I to said. his-father His-son thathe-kissed. ni-chapā chang ki-ma-tik-ni-mak-yai. nang māi-kūngā kilēmalē-yai, māi-kūngā have-done-wrong, your-son to-be worthy-am-not.' before before you pūwon hai-choin-lā chong apēkā, 'asatak yieng asoūk hāi Apān best ' clothes bringing orders gave, His-father his-servants tokhat min-tiyeng-ro, a-kē-yā kēhūp kūti a-khūt-ā kichapā min-bāng-ro; his-feet-on shoe his-hand-on ring one put. my-son cause-to-wear; wai-khat a-hong-ring-yai-yā; amangā, athiyā, hē-min-to-ro; kichapā hi becoming-alive; having-been-lost, this having-died, again my-son Hingā-yentā anmāni omroi.' kaini ahoiyā cha-in-lā wai-khat a-bān-yaiyā; eating let-us-remain.' Thus they merrily being-found; weagain ahoiyā an-om-yai. remained. happily

a-laik-om. Amān laipūkā ūpā-pā khanan achapā Hawā field-in Hewas. elder That time-at his-son kē-hai-thai. Amān alām aring khūwong asūtā a-inā awā Hesound heard. beating dancing drumin-coming his-house-to ang-sik-mo-ni?' a-ding-kēl-yai. a-hai-koiyā, 'nini-tho-hanko khat asoūk why-is? asked. ' you-by-done-that calling. his-servant one a-hong-kir-yai. Amā ' ni-nāi-pā Hawā-hanko asoūk hawā asāngyai, ' your-brother has-returned. Heanswered, that Thereupon his-servant a-pēk.' a-hong-kir-ā ni-pān a-ning-a-sā bū na-lai-sa-lai-yā rice(feast)glad-being he-gives.' your-father having-returned without-illness lūto a-ti-nūm-a-dā-vai. athaidangā amān a-lūng-a-thak-ā inā hawā Chong being-angry house-in enter he-to-say-refused. this hearing Word a-wa-sūok-ā a-wa-mi-thēm-yai. Hawā-hanko achapā chong-hin apān Hiwā his-son entreated. Thereupon having-come-out reason-for his-father Thiskūm hiwā-tūkin nang na-sipā enro, asāngyai, hawā apā vieng your-service so-many your father 'look, years answered, that tocham ki-ngāi-mak-nā omak. Hawa-takhan kithowā wai-khat-bai kain nang was-not. Nevertheless disobeying words in-doing once-even Ι your khat bēum kē-roi-lēyā ahoiyā ki-chāk-sik kēl tē ki-sūwan-lē ki-sap even goat young one my-friends companions-with merrily to-eat together a-pēk-ā pümpāng na-nai-nak Sūkāng viēng ni-pē-mak-chi. allgiving your-property you-have-not-given. Harlot to ni-pēk-yai.' bū nē-hong-pēk-ā nang ni-min-mang-sūwā nichapā hi have-given. rice (feast) who-wasted on-coming you your-son thisni-om-sūom; anisūoni a-ti-yai, 'kichapā, nang-ko kai-lē Hawa-hanko apān live-together: always Thereupon his-father said, e my-son, me-with you

Ni-nāi-pā hi athiyā, nang-nai-sik. ki-nai achang pumpang Your-brother this having-died, my-wealth allyour-wealth-for. being a-mang-yai-yā, ki-bān-yai; hiwā wai-khat wai-khat a-hong-ring-yai; has-been-found; this having-been-lost, again has-become-alive; again chong-hin kai-ni ahoiyā om-sik-a-ni.' to-remain-it-is.' merrily reason-for we

[No. 26.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP,

KOLRĒN OR KOIRENG.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

kaini-ko a-fūt-pēk-ā-ko Pathien khūrā hāi chong ko, Ūpā God's at-first nether-land-in that. we word allThe-old a-khār-ā, a-hong-sok-nā hawā lüng khūrrpi Miring kin-omā. hole that stone (with) was-shut-up, coming-out People we-were. lāi-lēnin hawā Hawā-hanko lung sok-thai-mak-ā. miring hãi a-bird that Then stone come-out-could-not. allpeople Kolrēn¹ kaini-ko kin-khēk-ā an-ong-sūwok. hāi a-fong-a miring making-noise Koireng 100 allcame-out. people. opening wai-yai' a-ti-yā wai-khat a-ni-khār-ā. Pathien-in 'atam kin-ong-sūwok-ā, again shut-up. are ' saying God-by ' many coming-out, an-mā-ni-ko a-ching-ā an-om-chienā atam Merong, Khongsai, being-silent many sensibly Kabui (Nāgās) they Khongzāis, sūwok-maong. Kolrēn-ko atam chong-hin Hawa an-ong-sūko. did-not-come-out. Kolrēn many That reason-for came-out. An-mā-ni-ko an-sūwo. a-tam came-out. Those many

¹ Kolrēn is the name of the caste used by the people themselves.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Our ancestors tell that, at first, we were in the nether land. There was a hole leading from that place to this world; but it was always kept shut up with a heavy stone, and the people could not come out (to this world). But one day it so happened that a bird removed the stone and so all the subterranean people passed out, one after another, through this hole; but the Koirengs (who were coming behind) made so much noise when passing through the hole that it came to the notice of God, who, thinking them too many, shut up the hole again. But the Khongzais and Kabuis were more provident and kept silent and so many of them were able to pass out (without the knowledge of God).

This, say the Koirengs, is the reason why their population is so small and why the other Nāgās are so numerous.

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KŌM.

Kōm is spoken in a few villages in Manipur, chiefly among the hills bordering the west side of the valley, and at Sinamkom, about twelve miles to the north of Manipur. The Deputy Commissioner states that the Kōms and some other neighbouring tribes are small communities, with populations varying from 500 to 1,000 souls each. We may therefore put the number of speakers down as about 750. Major W. McCulloch makes the following statement:—

'The Kom at one time was a powerful tribe, and their chief village not very long ago contained so many as six hundred houses. They bordered on the Khongjais, and though the two tribes were connected by intermarriage, their feuds were frequent and bloody. Several Khongjai villages paid them tribute. Amongst the Koms, the villages which have more largely intermarried with the Khongjais, have adopted in all particulars Khongjai usages even to the prejudices of the comb, whilst those that have kept more to themselves retain their own, The heads of the pure Kom villages appear elective and to have no great power or perquisites. Their customs, too, are much the same as those of the Koupooees.'

The Koms, like the Khongzais, Kolrens, etc., think that their forefathers lived in the interior of the earth. This tradition is found in the second specimen.

AUTHORITY-

McCulloch, Major W.—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Munnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859. Short account of the tribe on pp. 64 and f.

I am indebted to Colonel H. Maxwell, C.S.I., the Political Agent in Manipur, for the two specimens and the list of words printed below. They have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, of Uribok, and are, so far as I am aware, the first specimens of Kōm ever published. The following notes are entirely based on the forms contained in these specimens.

Pronunciation.—The vowels i and \bar{e} seem sometimes to be interchangeable; thus, Pathin and $Path\bar{e}n$, God. The vowel i in the suffix in is often dropped after a preceding \bar{a} ; thus, $p\bar{a}n$, for $p\bar{a}$ -in, by the father. The final vowel of the verb $th\bar{e}$, to hear, is written ai, in thai- \bar{a} , hearing. In the same way we find ai instead of \bar{a} in a-ning-ka-thai- $y\bar{o}$, they were happy; but, a-ning-ka- $th\bar{a}$, happy. Aspirated nasals and liquids are relatively frequent; thus, ka- $th\bar{a}$, far; $mh\bar{u}$, to see; ka- $nh\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , behind; ka-rhing, safe, etc.; but the writing is not consistent. Thus we find tai and thai, field; tai and tai and tai and tai and tai and tai is sometimes dropped before vowels, if tai t

Prefixes and Suffixes.—Most of these are used to form cases and tenses, and will be treated below. There remain, however, several, the proper meaning of which can no more be ascertained, and in this respect Kom represents the same stage of development as the Bodo and Nāgā languages,

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The following *Prefixes* have been arranged alphabetically to avoid repetition, many of them being used before several classes of words:—

a is perhaps identical with the possessive pronoun of the third person. It is used before substantives, adjectives, and verbs. Thus, a-pā, O father; a-ram-ā, that-country-in; α-ū-pā, the elder son; a-ka-lhēk, some; a-ka-thā, good; a-khēng-ā all; a-pē-rō, give; a-dā-pā-rō, keep, etc.

ga occurs in a-ga- $k\bar{u}\bar{a}$, he embraced. Compare ka, below.

in is prefixed to several verbs; thus, in-chang, to make; in-chūn, to join; in-lēt-in-thēg-ā, abundantly; in-rhi, to say; in-sūng, to sit, etc. It also occurs in in-ang-ā, like. The same prefix is very common in Hallām, and also in other languages of the same group.

ka is the most common of all prefixes and seems to have a still wider use than the corresponding prefix in Angami. In form it is identical with the possessive pronoun of the first person. The list of words generally prefixes a ka to all nouns denoting relationship or parts of the body; thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$, father; ka- $k\bar{u}$, hand. This ka probably means 'my' and is dropped after the possessive pronouns of the second and third persons; thus, $na-p\bar{a}n$, thy father; $a-k\bar{u}d-\bar{a}$, his-hand-on. Ka is further used to form verbal nouns; thus, kyāyōng-ka-sēr, shepherd (ser to tend); a-ka-lam, dancing; ka-re, companion; ka-tim, friend; $ka-s\bar{u}-pi$, harlot; ka-ni, sun, day. Adjectives are frequently preceded by ka; thus, ka-lhā, far; ka-matik, worthy; ka-sāi, tall; ka-thā, good; ka-tam, many; ka-tang, expensive, etc. Participles ending in \bar{a} are often preceded by ka; thus, ka-sē-ā, going; ka-thi-ā, having died, etc. It also occurs in the finite verb; thus, $ka-s\bar{e}-y\bar{o}$, went; $ka-f\bar{a}k-y\bar{o}$, was found again. The list of words also contains forms such as ka-sā, eat; ka-sē, go, etc. I cannot say what form is intended, as no instances are given; but probably a verbal noun or infinitive is meant. Ka seems to become $k\bar{o}$ before $\bar{o}m$ and $h\bar{o}ng$; thus, $k\bar{o}$ - $\bar{o}m$, was; ni $k\bar{o}$ - $\bar{o}m$, to be; $k\bar{o}$ - $h\bar{o}ng$ - $y\bar{o}$, came. This ka or $k\bar{o}$ probably represents several different prefixes. Compare the prefix ka in the Bodo and Nāgā languages. See also Introduction, pp. 15 and f.

ma is sometimes prefixed to nouns relating to parts of the human body, like the prefix mi in Kachchā Nāgā; thus, ma-lai, tongue; ma-lung, heart. It also occurs in some adjectives and verbs. Thus, ma-tik, worthy; ma tum-pā, the younger; ma-sōn, to answer; ma-thēm, to entreat; ma-yōp, to kiss. Compare Meithei.

ni occurs in ni-kō ōm, to be. See also passive voice, below.

ra seems to be interchangeable with ka in ra-nhag-ā and ka-nhag-ā, highly, very. Further we find ra-nai, ground; ra-mhing, name.

ta seems to be a verbal prefix: thus, ta- $f\bar{a}k$ -sik, to be received. Compare the transitive prefix ti, ta, in Lushēi, Rāltē, Paitē, etc. It corresponds to Tibetan d. Most of the Suffixes which occur in the specimens and in the list will be found under verbs, below. Here I shall only mention two, ba or $w\bar{a}$, and rai. Ba and $w\bar{a}$ are added to demonstrative pronouns, perhaps in order to give emphasis. Thus, hi- $w\bar{a}$, this; kha- $w\bar{a}$, that, kha-ba-ka- $nh\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , that after. This $w\bar{a}$ is originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is also found in Kolrēn. Rai seems to be added in order to form abstract nouns; thus, ka-tim, friend; tim-rai, friendship.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral in-khat, one, is used as an indefinite article, and pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns and relative clauses supply the place of a definite article.

Nouns.—Gender seems only to be apparent in the case of animate beings. It is not denoted unless it is necessary in order to avoid ambiguity. Different words may be used; thus, $ka-p\bar{a}$, father; $ka-n\bar{u}$, mother: $pa-s\bar{e}$, man; $n\bar{u}-mhai$, woman. The usual suffixes are, in the case of human beings, $p\bar{a}$, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female. In the case of animals they are $ch\bar{e}$, male, and $(a)p\bar{u}i$, female. Thus, $s\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, son; $s\bar{a}-n\bar{u}$, daughter: $sa-k\bar{o}r$ $ch\bar{e}$, horse; $sa-k\bar{o}r$ $ap\bar{u}i$, mare: $\bar{u}i-ch\bar{e}$, dog; $\bar{u}i-p\bar{u}i$, bitch. The suffix $p\bar{u}i$ seems to be identical with pi in $ka-s\bar{u}-pi$, harlot.

Number is only marked when it does not appear from the context. The plural is then denoted by adding some word meaning 'many' such as nghai or ka-tam. Thus, a-shak-nghai nhēng, his-servants to; ka-pā ka-tam, fathers.

Case.—The Nominative and Accusative do not take any suffix. The subject of a transitive verb is distinguished by the suffix in denoting the agent. The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun. Thus, ka-pā shak, my-father's servants. In No. 225 the governed noun seems to be repeated by means of the pronoun a, his. Thus, ka-pā nāi-pang-pān a-sā-pān, my father's brother his-son. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as ā, in, on, to; ariā, in; haiyā, under; ka-nhūng-ā, behind; lē, with; māi-kūngam, before; mhā, before; nhēng, to; nhēng-ā, to, from; pūk-ā, in, to; sik-ā, for; wāng, with, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally precede, the noun they qualify. The suffix of comparison seems to be ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - \bar{a} , corresponding to $n\bar{e}k$ -in and $n\bar{e}k$ - \bar{a} in Hallām and Langrong. Thus, a- $m\bar{a}$ a-sar- $n\bar{u}$ $ch\bar{u}$ a- $n\bar{a}i$ - $p\bar{a}$ ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - \bar{a} ka- $s\bar{a}i$, his sister that his brother than tall, his brother is taller than his sister. The position of ka- $n\bar{e}g$ - \bar{a} is peculiar, and perhaps wrong. A Superlative seems to be formed by adding rak; thus, $p\bar{u}n$ -ladir a-ka-tha-rak, cloth best. Another way of expressing the comparative and the superlative is illustrated in the list of words. Thus, inhi- \bar{a} $\bar{a}n$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, higher, lit., two among high; a-ka-tam- \bar{a} $\bar{a}n$ - $s\bar{a}ng$, highest, lit., many-among high.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. In in in-khat, etc., is probably a generic prefix. It is dropped in wai-khat, once, again. Inhi, two, seems to be written for in-nhi. Another generic prefix chēng is used with reference to money. Thus, dangkā cheng-nhi makhāi, rupees two and a-half.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

kai, I. nang, thou. $a-m\bar{a}$, he. $ka-t\bar{o}ng$, ka, my. $nang-t\bar{o}ng$, nang, na, thy. $a-m\bar{a}$ $t\bar{o}ng$, $a-m\bar{a}$, a, his. kai-si, mine. $nang-t\bar{a}-si$, thine. $a-m\bar{a}-si$, his. Plural,—

kai-ni, we.nang-ni, you.an-mā-ni, they.kai-ni-tōng, our.nang-ni tōng, your.an-māni-tōng, their.kai-ni-si, ours.nang-ni-si, yours.an-mā-ni-si, theirs.

There are no instances of the use of the possessive forms ending in tong. Tong probably means 'word.' The suffix si is probably identical with sik which occurs in nang-sik-ā, you for, for your sake. Kai-si, mine, is therefore literally 'me-for.'

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In the sentence kai nhēng-ā akō-ōm hi akhēng-ā nang-tā-rūk, me to remaining this all yours is, all that I have is thine, we have another genitive $n\bar{a}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, thine. The suffix $t\bar{a}$ is used to form the pronouns 'mine, thine,' etc., in most other languages of this group. The ordinary suffixes and postpositions may be added to the personal pronouns; thus, nang-in apē-mak-chē, thou gavest-not; a-mā nhēng-ā, him from. In the genitive the pronoun may apparently be repeated. Thus, a-mā a-sā-pān, he his son.

The following Demonstrative pronouns occur: -hi, hi-wā, this; khā, kha-wā, that; khan or khān, that; a-mā, that. Hi may also be added to other words in order to emphasise them. Thus, kai-hi Pa-thēn nhēng kā-lān-yō, I God to I-sinned. In the same way we also find $ch\bar{u}$ added. Thus, $kai\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, I; $nang\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, thou; $a\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, he; a-mā man-chū, its prize. Chū is probably a demonstrative pronoun; compare Relative pronouns, below. Khā is also added in a similar way; thus, a-mā-khā kanhag-a wū-i-nā rhūi wāng khit-rō, him well beating ropes with bind. The pronoun khan is sometimes used with the force of a definite article. Thus, a-sā-pa a-ū-pā khan, his son elder that, his son the elder.

There are no Relative pronouns. They are replaced by means of participles, or a demonstrative pronoun is used as a kind of correlative. Thus, kai nhēng-ā kō-om hi akhēng-ā, me to being this all, all that I have; na-ral hingyā-hi ka-sū-pi nhēng a-pē-ā a-man-mhang na-sā-pā hi a-hōng-lē-chū nang-in bū nā-wai-hai, thy property all-this harlots to giving he-wasted-having thy-son this he-came-again-that thou rice thou-artgiving, as soon as this thy son who gave all thy property to harlots and wasted it came back, thou art giving a feast; ka-pān ka-pūn thūm-hin lai-hi-chū hi-ē, my-father-by myforefather-by story was-that is, this is the story told by my forefathers.

Interrogative pronouns. - Tū-mō, who? hai-mō, what? hai-yā-mō, how many? Thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{o}$, whose son ?

Indefinite pronouns.—Tū-tē, anyone.

Verbs: -- Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. These are: -ka or kā, I; kan or ka, we: na or nā, thou; nan, na or nē, you: a, he, she, it; an, they.

The prefixes are dropped in the imperative and before the prefixes a, in, ka, and $k\bar{e}$. The list of words indicates another way of distinguishing the person, and partly also the number, of the verb, by adding suffixes. The following are found:

First person: -ēng, plural ūng. Thus, kai kasē-yō-ēng, I went; kai-ni kasē-ūng, we

Compare Present definite.

Second person:—chē, plural chai, chi, or choi. Thus, nang kasē-yō-chē, thou wentest; nang-ni kasē-chai, you go; nang-ni lai-ka-chang-chi, you were; nang-ni kasēyō-chōi, you went.

Third person:—hai. Thus, a-mā kasē-yōng-hai, he went; an-mā-ni kasē-yō-hai, they went.

Some of these suffixes occur in the specimens. Thus, kathi-yō-ēng, I am dying; apē-mak-chē, gavest not ; a-sēm-pēk-hai, he divided-gave. Hai is rather frequent, and in one place it is also used after a verb in the second person singular. Thus, nā-wai-hai, thou preparest. In a similar way eng refers to a subject of the third person in kai a-niwūk-yō-ēng, me he-struck, I was struck. At the same time it is very improbable that these suffixes are really used as conjugational terminations; but the materials are not sufficient to ascertain their real meaning. Eng is identical with the suffix in, en, or eng which is used in Rangkhol and connected dialects. The other suffixes are apparently demonstrative pronouns, added in order to emphasise.

With regard to certain other prefixes used before verbs, see prefixes and suffixes above. The root, either alone, or with the prefix ka, is freely used to denote the present and past times. Thus, na-ka-nhūng akhan tū-sā-pā-mō kō-hōng, thee-behind that whose-son comes? whose son comes behind you? a-mān sē a-sēr, he cattle grazing-is; a-rhi, he said, etc. An ē may be added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, hi-ē, is, nang-chū kai-lē hiwā-tūk-ā kō-ōm-ē-yā, thou me-with this-long art-always; a-ma-yōp-ē, he kissed. Also lē may be added. Thus, a-hōng-lē-chū, he coming, when he came. This lē is perhaps identical with the postposition lē, with; thus, a-hōng-lē, his-coming-with. Hōng may then be considered as a verbal noun or participle. Compare the parallel use of leh and ve-leh in Lushēi and connected languages. Lushēi leh also means 'again', and that is perhaps the meaning of lē in α-hōng-lē, and almost certainly of lē in ō-hōngin-lē-yō, he revived again.

Forms of the Present definite are: ka-thi-yō-ēng, I am dying; kain ka-lai-wūk-hi, I am beating. The corresponding Imperfect is kai ka-lai-wūk-shai-yō, I was beating. None of these forms is characteristic for these tenses. Eng in ka-thi-yō-ēng has been mentioned above, and lai in the two other forms is identical with lāi and lā in Hallām, Aimol, Chiru, etc. Compare also Past tense, below. In kain ka-lai-wūk-hi, I am beating, the demonstrative hi is probably a verb substantive, and the literal translation would be 'me-by my-time-beating-is (takes place)', I am now beating. In kai ka-lai-wūk-shai-yō, I was beating, shai may correspond to shi, to be, in Zahao, Banjōgī, etc., and yō is the suffix of past tenses.

Past tense.—The suffix $t\bar{a}$ occurs in a-s $\bar{a}k$ -n $h\bar{u}m$ -t \bar{a} , he-to-eat-wished. The usual suffix is $y\bar{o}$; thus, a-s \bar{e} -pu-y \bar{o} , he went, or, he brought. $Y\bar{o}$ seems to be nasalised in a-m $\bar{a}ka$ -s \bar{e} -y \bar{o} ng-hai, he went; an-m \bar{a} -ni ka-s \bar{e} -y \bar{o} n-hai, they went. It probably means something like 'finish,' complete ' (compare R \bar{a} ngkh \bar{o} l j \bar{o} i), and we may thus explain its use in other tenses; thus, ka-thi-y \bar{o} - \bar{e} ng, I am dying; ka-h \bar{o} i- \bar{a} \bar{o} m-y \bar{o} -ri, merry let-us-be (completely). The prefix lai has been mentioned above. Other instances of its use are: lai-ka-t \bar{a} ng-y \bar{o} , (the rice) became dear; a-lai-that, he killed.

The suffix of the Future seems to be sik or si, which should be compared with the postposition sik-ā, for. Thus, kain ka-wūk-si, I shall beat; nang-in na-wūk-si, thou wilt beat; kō-hōng-ri-sik, I will go and say. In kai ka-chang-sēng, I shall be, the suffix ēng seems to be added. This suffix seems to denote the future in ka-sē-ēng-ā, going (I will go and say). Compare Khongzāi kai chēng-ē, I will go, and similar forms in Hallām and other dialects.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is $r\bar{o}$, plural $r\bar{u}$, first person plural ri; thus, $wa-s\bar{e}r-\bar{o}$ (for $wa-s\bar{e}r-r\bar{o}$), tend; $p\bar{e}-r\bar{o}$, give; $man-si-r\bar{u}$, cause-you-(him)-to-put-on; $\bar{o}m-y\bar{o}-ri$, let-usbe. The forms $ka-s\bar{e}$, go; $ka-s\bar{a}$, eat, etc., in No. 77 and ff., are probably verbal nouns. Compare Prefixes and suffixes, above.

Thus, na-sā-pā chang ka-ma-tik-ē-mak-yō, thy-son to-by I-am-not-worthy; khang-sūk a-ka-lām an-lhing a-thē-yō, drum-beating (and) dancing-of sound he heard. The list of words gives sik-ā as the suffix of the infinitive; thus, chang-sik-ā, to be; wūk-sik-ā, to beat. It is evidently the infinitive of purpose; compare, ka-tim ka-rē-lē kan-ta-sak-sik-ā, my-friends my-companions-with our-feasting-for, that I might feast with my friends and companions. Compare Future, above.

Participles.—The root alone seems to be used as a Relative participle. The prefix $k\bar{o}$ is added in two of the instances which occur in the specimens. Thus, a-in- \bar{a} a-h \bar{o} ng-

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ting, his-house-to he-coming-time-at; a-ram-ā kō-ōm pa-sē in-khat nhēng, that-country-in living man one to, to a man who lived in that country. In the same way the base of the future is used as a future relative participle; thus, kain ta-fāk-sik nai-nā, me-by tobe-received property, the property that I shall receive. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding the suffixes \bar{a} and $n\bar{a}$. \bar{A} may be added to all tenses. Thus a-rhōn-ā ka-lhā in-khad-ā, a-ran a-khēng-ā ram a-sā-pā ma-tūm-pā khan that his-wealth all he-carrying country one-to his-son younger A-sē-pu-yō-ā khangyā a-man-mang-sō-yō. a-sē-pu-yō. he-wasted-completely. He-gone-having his-wealth all he-went.

Further, $ka-s\bar{e}-\bar{e}ng-\bar{a}$ $k\bar{o}-h\bar{o}ng-ri-sik$, I go-will-and say-will. In words such as $h\bar{o}ng-ka-sik-\bar{a}$, coming out, the word sik seems to mean 'to come out,' and to be quite different from the future suffix sik. Compare in-khat-in-khat $h\bar{o}ng-ka-shik$, one-by-one came out, and Lushei chhuak, to come out. The suffix $n\bar{a}$ forms conjunctive participles which seem to occur only in connection with the imperative (compare the Tibetan suffix la). In the singular an i, and in the plural an \bar{u} , is prefixed to $n\bar{a}$. Thus, $w\bar{u}-i.n\bar{a}$ $khit-r\bar{o}$, beat-and bind; $h\bar{o}ng-choi-\bar{u}-n\bar{a}$ $man-si-r\bar{u}$, bring-and put-on-him.

A Noun of agency is formed by adding the suffix $p\bar{a}$. This must be concluded from the etymology given of the name Lai- $w\bar{o}n$ - $p\bar{a}$ in the second specimen, where it is said to mean 'he who wraps $(w\bar{o}n)$ the tongue (ma-lai).'

The Passive voice does not differ from the active, but the subject is not distinguished by the suffix of the agent. Thus, $ka-f\bar{a}k-y\bar{o}$, he was found again; $koi\ a-ni-w\bar{u}k-y\bar{o}-\bar{e}ng$ me he-beat, I was beaten. The meaning of ni in a-ni cannot be ascertained.

Compound verbs are freely formed. Some of the prefixes used in them have been mentioned above. Hong denotes motion towards the speaker; thus, hong-choi, to bring here; wa seems to denote motion; thus wok wa-se-ro, pigs go and tend. Causatives seem to be formed by prefixing man; thus, si, to wear; man-si, to cause to wear. Another causative seems to be formed by suffixing pu, perhaps corresponding to Lushei pui, to help, to assist. Thus, a-ran a-rhōn-ā ram ka-lhā in-khad-ā a-sē-pu-yō, his property he carried-and country far one-to he-brought. A-s \bar{e} -pu-y \bar{o} is translated 'he went,' but $s\bar{e}$ alone is 'to go,' and ka-sē-yō, went. In pa-sē khan a-mā-chū a-lhai-pūk-ā a-tir-ā-ka-sēyō, man that him his-fields-to sent, a-tir-ā-ka-sē-yō, seems to mean 'he sending went,' and is probably not a causative. Desideratives are formed by adding nhum: thus. a-sāk-nhūm tā, he to-eat-wished. I cannot analyse in-ā rhūlō i-nūm-ka-dā, he did not wish to enter the house, but num in i-num is perhaps the same as nhum, to wish; $rh\bar{u}l\bar{o}$ is probably an imperative, and the literal translation is perhaps 'house-in "enter" he-to-wish-refused.' Potentials are formed by adding ka-thā; thus, kain ka-wūk-ka-thā, I may beat. This ka-thā must be compared with thāi, to be able, to be allowed, in Hallam, and similar forms in other connected languages. It is different from ka-thā, good. Other compounds are formed by adding $s\bar{o}$, entirely; $y\bar{a}$, always, etc.

The Negative particle is mak; thus, Karang- $p\bar{a}n$ $h\bar{u}m$ - $p\bar{u}i$ $k\bar{a}p$ -mak, Karang-pa tiger does-not-shoot. In in- \bar{a} $rh\bar{u}l\bar{o}$ $in\bar{u}m$ -ka- $d\bar{a}$, he did not wish to enter into the house, ka- $d\bar{a}$ seems to correspond to the Meithei negative da. Compare, however, the corresponding passage in the Kolren specimen.

The Interrogative particle is mo. Compare Interrogative pronouns, above.

Adjectives are freely used as verbs; thus, ka- $th\bar{e}$, (it-is) good; hi-nina $K\bar{a}shmir$ ka- $s\bar{e}$ -hi hai-tuk- $m\bar{o}$ ka- $lh\bar{a}$, here-from (to-) Kashmir to-go how-much far (is it)?

[No. 27.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KŌM.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

An-mā-ni inhi kār-khan · Pasē inkhat sā-pā inhi kō-ōm. ma-tūm-pā one-(of) sons two were. Them two from-amongst younger , kain ta-fāk-sik khan a-pā nhēng a-rhi, a-pā, a-sā-pā 'father, by-me to-be-received property that his-father tosaid, his-son a-pē-rō.' a-sā-pā nhēng A-pān inhi-ā nainā a-khēng-ā khan kai togive.' His-father his-sons two-to property that me alla-omā a-sā-pā ma-tūm-pā khan a-ran a-khēng-ā a-sēm-pēk-hai. Ka-ni a-ka-lhēk remaining his-son younger he-divided-gave. Days somethat his-wealth ram ka-lhā in-khad-ā a-sē-pu-yō. A-sē-pu-yō-ā a-ka-ni-mak-a-tlō-ā a-ran carrying place distant one-to he-went. Having-gone wickedly wealth hangyā a-man-mang-sō-yō, akhēngā a-man-mang-sō-yō-ā ram akhan hü all-that he-wasted-entirely, allhe-having-wasted place that-(in)rice ranhagā lai-ka-tāng-yō. Khan-tak-bā $am\bar{a}$ a-nang-yō. Amān aram-ā dear-became. Thereupon he distressed-was. Hevery that-place-in in-chūn-yō-hai. kō-ōm pasē inkhat nheng ka-sē-ā Pasē khan. was-joined-together. residing man onegone-having Man that, wok wa-se-ro, a-ti a-mā-chū a-lhai-pūk-ā a-tir-ā-ka-sē-yō. Wok khlāi pasture, his-field-to ' swine saying himSwine sent. food khatak baküm a-sāk-nhūm-tā tū-tē Hong nūm a-pē-mak-hai. that he-to-eat-wished any-one even even did-not-give. Sense ka-sing-yō-ā amān a-bing-rag-ā in-rhi-yō-ā, ' ka-pā shakngkai-in 'father's having-returned himself-to said, he servants many in-let-in-theg-a an-sāg-ā kō-ōm, kai-chū ka-wōn ka-tām-ā ka-thi-yō-ēng. Kai abundantly Ι hunger-in am-about-to-die. Ieating live, bellyka-pā nhēng ka-sē-ēngā kō-hōng-ri-sik, " ka-pā, kain Pathēn nhēng my-father to " father, I gone-having say-will, Godtokā-lān-yō, na-māi-kūngam chang ka-ma-tikkā-lān-yō; na-sā-pā have-done-wrong, you-before have-done-wrong; your-son to-be I-worthyē-mak-yō; na-shak in-khat ang-füngā a-dāpā-rō.", . Hi a-ti-ā no-more; me your-servant one like keep." This . saying

nhēng kō-hōng-yō A-ka-lhā a-ōmā a-pān a-mhū-ā Distance-at he-remaining his-father seeing came. he his-father a-ma-lung-ka-si-ā, ka-tān-ā, a-lhak-ā a-ga-kūā, a-ma-yōp-ē. Khanā-khan a-sā-pān having-compassion, running, neck-on embracing, kissed. Thereupon a-mā nhēng a-rhiā, ka-pā, kai-hi Pathēn nhēng kā-lān-yō, tohave-done-wrong, father father, I-this Godsaid, him na-sā-pā chang ka-ma-tik-ē-mak-yō.' Khanā-khan kā-lān-yō, na-māi-kūngam have-done-wrong, your-son to-be I-worthy-no-more.' you-before ' pūn-ladir a-ka-tha-rak hong-choi-ū-nā nghai nhēng a-rhiā, a-shak ' garment best bringing said, his-father many servantkūtkhi inkhat a-kē-ā a-kūd-ā man-nai-rū, man-si-rū; ka-sā-pā nhēng his-feet-on ring put, put-on; his-hand-on a toa-ka-thi-ā, ō-hōng-in-lē-yō; kēhūp man-nai-rū; ka-sā-pā hi this died-having, has-become-alive; lost-having-been my-son shoes put; sā-in-ā ka-hōiā kai-ni hi-ninā kā-mhū-vō; wai-khad-ā eating-drinking merrily . found-has-been ; for-this-reason 100 againa-ti-ā an-mā-ni a-hōiā kō-ōm-yō-hai. Hi ōm-yō-ri. merrily remained. This saying they let-us-remain.

Khawā-kān-akhan a-sā-pā a-ū-pā khan lai-pūkā kō-ōm. A-mān a-in-ā He his-house-to elder thatfield-in was. That-time-at son a-ka-lām an-lhing a-thē-yō. A-mān a-shak-pā a-bikā, sūk a-hong-ting khang servantcalling, dancing Hein-coming drum beating heard. 'hai-mō-nē-tlōā?' a-ti-ā a-dēr-ā. A-shak-pān a-ma-son-ā, ' na-nāi-pā His-servant answered, ' your-brother asked. 'what-you-do?' saying kō-hōng-yō, ka-rhing-ka-dam-ā hong-ka-sik-ā na-pān a-ning-ka-thā bū having-come your-father being-glad rice-(feast) has-come, alive-safe in-ā rhūlō anhūkanā Khawa-kha thaiā a-sā-pā a-ū-pā a-wai-hai.' enterbeing-angry house-inelderis-giving.' This-word hearing his-son a-ma-thēm. A-sā-pān hai-ka-sik-ā a-sā-pā inūm-ka-dā. A-pā His-son entreated. his-son having-come-out he-wished-not. His-father \mathbf{hi} nang sik-ā nang nhēng a-ma-son, 'ēn-rō, kūm hiwā-tūkā a-pā thisyoufor so-long to answered, look, years his-father kā-makhē-tōr-mak, tong kā-tlō-ā wai-khat rigā kain nang sēpā disobey-did-not, I words your in-doing once even ka-hōiā kan-ta-sāk-sik-ā kē ka-rē-lē hin-tak-a-hin-ā nang-in ka-tim you my-friends my-companions-with merrily to-eat goat nevertheless hing-yā-hi ka-sū-pi nhēng inkhat rūgūm a-pē-mak-chē. Na-ral tē all-that harlot toYour-wealth young have-not-given. a-hōng-lē-chū nang-in bū a-pē-ā a-man-mhang na-sā-pā hi on-coming you rice-(feast) who-had-wasted this by-giving your-son kai-lē ' ka-sā, nang-chū nā-wai-hai.' Khanā-khanā a-tiā, a-pān me-with 'my-child, you are-giving. Thereupon his-father said, 2 K 2

hiwā-tūkā kō-om-ēyā; nhēngā a-khēngā kai a-kō-ōm hi nang-tā-rūk. so-long live-always; tothis allremaining yours-also. me Na-nāi-pā hi a-yong-ka-thi-a, wai-khat ong-ka-rhing-yo; a-yong-hin-mang-a, Your-brother this having-died, has-become-alive; having-been-lost, again ka-ning-ka-thā ni-kō-ōm hiwayārhinā ka-fāk-yō, kai-ni ka-hōiā has-been-found, gladlythis-reason-for we merrily to-live ka-thā,' it-is-proper.'

[No. 28.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KOM.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

SPECIMEN II.

FOLK-LORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A KOM.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

Ti-lāv-ā hi-ē. thūm-hin lai-hi-chū ka-pūn Ka-pan Formerly this-is. that-was-told My-fathers-by my-forefathers-by story Khaba-ka-nhūng-ā an-mā-ni ranai-a-riā lai-kō-ōm-hai. kā-pūn Afterwards. they ground-in mere. my-fathers my-forefathers khūrpūi-ā inkhat-inkhat hong-ka-shik. Hūmpūi inkhat a-lai-lhūā Tiger lying-in-wait the-castle-in hole-through one-(by)-one came-out. hūmpūi khan hong-ka-sik-a niyē a-si-ā a-lai-that. Karang-pā pūn-thē thatcolour wearing on-coming-out tiger Karangpa cloth-striped killed. Sāichēpā hōng-ka-sik-ā hūmpūi a-kāb-ā. in-chang-hai. tim-rai in-ang-ā a-ti-ā on-coming tiger shot.friendshipSāichēpā made. similar saying an-mā-ni a-ning-ka-thā yū ka-thi-yō. Hūmpūi khan ka-thi-ā Hūmpūi khan they being-glad that being-dead Tigerdied. Tiger Laiwonpā a-ma-lai Hūmpūi a-nād-ā an-sāk-an-in-ā a-ning-ka-thai-yō. lēmhē Laiwonpā tongue eating-drinking made-amusement. Tiger cutting flesh Khanā hūmpūi Laiwonpā a-ron. khanā a-won-ā, a-der-a Therefore tiger was-named. Laiwonpā waist-cloth-in wrapped-up, therefore Karangpān hūmpūi kāp-mak. Karang-pā tūng kafā ai-mak, till does-not-eat, Karangpā tiger does-not-shoot. now Karangpā

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

A piece of Kom folk-lore.

We learn from our ancestors, that our forefathers lived in the nether-world. Afterwards they came out one by one through a hole which is in the fort of Manipur. A tiger lay in wait and killed them as they issued. Karangpā¹ came out wearing a striped cloth, and the tiger, because it resembled his skin, made friends with him. Then Sāi-chēpā² came out, and he shot the tiger. The tiger died, and in joy thereat everyone drank wine, ate flesh, and rejoiced. Laiwōnpā cut out the tiger's tongue and wrapped it in his waist cloth. Hence he was named Laiwōnpā.³ (On account of the old friendship) tigers still refrain from eating Karangpā's descendants, nor will they shoot tigers.

¹ The Manipuris call him Khābā. He is the progenitor of the Khābā clan-

² The Manipuris call him Angom.

² Las, the tongue; won, to wrap up. He is called Khūman by the Manipuris.

KYAU OR CHAW.

The Kyaus or Chaws are settled on the banks of the Koladyne. It is a very small tribe, and 'tradition says that they were offered as pagoda slaves by a pious queen of Arakan, named "Saw Ma Gyee," some three centuries back, when Arakanese influence and the tenets of Buddhism extended far higher up in the hills than the limits of our present control.' In features, dress, and appearance they are said to be hardly distinguishable from the lower class of the Bengali peasantry of Chittagong. They are, perhaps, Aryan half-breeds. Their language, however, is pure Tibeto-Burman, and is closely related to the Kuki dialects of Cachar and Hill Tipperah.

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Very little is known of the dialect spoken by the Chaws. The vocabularies published by Latter and Phayre show that it most closely agrees with Rāngkhōl and connected dialects, such as Hallām, Kōm, and Langrong. Thus the word for 'cat' is meng in Chaw, Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Kōm, Langrong, and also in Khongzāi. 'Cow' is charrā in Chaw, which seems to correspond to Rāngkhōl shē-rhāt, Kōm sē-rhāt, Hallām and Langrong se-rāt, while other connected languages have other forms; thus, Lushēi se-bāng, Khongzāi bōng, Lai zá-pī. The word for 'mother' occurs as nū and nūng, which two forms also are used in Rāngkhōl. 'Woman' is n'pang, corresponding to nū-pāng in Rāngkhōl, Hallām, and Langrong. N'rmīng is given as the word for 'name,' but probably means 'thy name,' the word for 'name' being rmīng. The initial r in this word recurs in Rāngkhōl ir-ming, Kōm ra-mhing, and Hallām rā-ming, while other connected languages have ming or mhing. The r in rmīng is a prefix while the form mhing represents a secondary development, the prefix being dropped before m. The word tshamak, bad, compared with atshā, good, shows that the negative particle is mak as in Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Kōm, and Langrong; compare Rāngkhōl shāmāk, bad.

The few remarks on Chaw grammar which Lieutenant Latter has made in his article quoted above also show a close resemblance to the same dialects. The male suffix $ts\bar{a}l$ used to denote a male animal occurs in Rāngkhōl, Hallām, and Langrong, but also in other connected languages such as Lushēi, Banjōgī, Pānkhū, Lai, Khongzāi, etc. The Chaw numerals are of more interest. The first ordinals are:—

One khāt.	Six ō-rūk.
Two niek.	Seven $s'r\bar{\imath}$.
Three t'hūm.	Eight rūet.
Four m'lī.	Nine $k\bar{o}$.
Five nga.	Ten tchūom.

Twenty tchūom niek. Fifty tchūom nga. Hundred r'za. CHAW. 255.

The prefixes m and r in m'li and r'za are also used in Rāngkhōl, Kōm, and Hallām. Shö has also the form mlhi, four, and Langrong $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$, hundred, while other dialects apparently use different prefixes. The suffix of the imperative is rau, i.e. $r\bar{a}$. The corresponding suffix in Rāngkhōl, Kōm, Hallām, and Langrong is ro, which is, however, also used in other dialects such as Lushēi, Mhār, and Banjōgī. The suffix of the negative imperative is m'rau, apparently corresponding to Rāngkhōl $n\bar{o}$ - $r\bar{o}$. The negative particle is said to be ma, but the instances given in order to illustrate its use show that it is really mak or maing. These forms correspond to $m\bar{a}k$ and $m\bar{a}mg$ in Rāngkhōl, $m\bar{a}k$ and $m\bar{a}ng$ in Hallām, mak in Kom, and $m\bar{a}k$ in Langrong, etc.

None of these facts are conclusive, and the materials which are available are too scanty for definitively fixing the position of the Chaw dialect. But it seems probable that there is a close relation between Chaw on one side and Rāngkhōl, Hallām, Kōm, Langrong, etc., on the other. The Chaws are believed to have been transferred to their present home in modern times, and they have probably formerly been settled farther to the north, in the neighbourhood of the tribes mentioned above.

MHĀR.

The Mhār dialect is spoken by about 2,000 individuals scattered over the different villages in the Northern Lushai Hills. There are no villages composed altogether of people speaking Mhār. The Mhārs have accepted the Dulien domination, but are said to have retained their own customs. Their name is also spelt *Hmar*, and may have something to do with the Chin word *mar*, which amongst the Hakas and other tribes is the name given to the Lushais. In the Lushai Hills the word *Mhār* is used to denote immigrants from the Manipur State, and its proper meaning is said to be 'north.'

The Mhār dialect has been much influenced by Lushēi. There are, however, sufficient points of disagreement, and, on the whole, the dialect is more closely related to the Old Kuki sub-group than to Lushēi.

I am indebted to Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., for a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son in Mhar, and this translation is the basis of the following attempt to describe the chief characteristics of the language.

Pronunciation.—There are no signs used in the specimen to denote long vowels, but we may infer from Lushēi that final vowels of words and syllables are long. An h after a vowel indicates that the sound is abruptly shortened. But the specimen is not consistent in the use of this h, and there seems to be some confusion also in other respects, especially with regard to the vowels o and \(\alpha\), which latter sign denotes the sound of \(\alpha\) in the English word 'all.' Thus, we find the same words written le and leh; ni and nih; n\(\alpha\) and noh; n\(\alpha\)k and nok; th\(\alpha\) and thoh. Concurrent vowels are occasionally contracted; thus, pan for pa-in, by the father. A euphonic v is inserted between o and a following vowel; thus, deo-v-in, lo-v-a. The k in pek, to give, is generally silent. Mh\(\alpha\)r sh sometimes corresponds to Lush\(\alpha\)i chh ; thus, sham, Lush\(\alpha\)i chham, to run short; shang, R\(\alpha\)ngkh\(\alpha\)l shang-pa, Lush\(\alpha\)i chhang-bung, younger brother or sister, etc. But, on the other hand, shem, to divide, has the same form in Lush\(\alpha\)i, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles in the language. In the first sentence of the specimen the indefinite pronoun tu-ma-nih, a certain, is used as an indefinite article, while pronominal prefixes, demonstrative pronouns, and relative phrases supply the place of a definite article. Thus, a-nao-pang-lem-in, the younger; se-bang te thao tak kha, cow young fat very that, the fatted calf.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate nouns. The specimen contains two suffixes denoting gender, pa and pa-sal, both for the masculine gender. Thus, fa-pa, child male, son; mi-pa, man; nao-pasal, son. Names of animals seem to be neuter when no suffix denotes their gender. Thus vok, pigs, is combined with the singular pronominal prefix. See Verbs, below.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. The number of the subject is indicated by means of the pronominal prefixes preceding the verb. When it is necessary to indicate the plural the suffix hai is added; thus, suak-hai, slaves. Hai is identical with the plural suffix used in Rāngkhōl, Langrong, Chiru, etc.

Case.—The Nominative, the Accusative and the Dative are not distinguished by means of suffixes. The Genitive is denoted by putting the stem, without any suffix, before the governing word; thus, ro ka chan-tum, of the property my share. In nang-a mit-mhu, your eye-sight, a is suffixed to the pronoun. This a is the demonstrative pronoun of the third person; so also van-a mi, sky-its man, God, etc. The suffix in, denoting the agent, is added to the subject of a transitive verb; thus, a pa-n (i.e., pa-in),

MHĀR, 257

a ta, his father he said. Na seems to be used instead of in in mi tu-na-ma-nih fa-pa pa-nhih a nei-a, man a certain sons two he had. Tu-ma-nih is the indefinite pronoun, and na seems to correspond to the Manipuri suffix na. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions, such as a, in, to; chung-a, before, against; nhin, with, to; in, in; kuam-a, with, to; tiang, in, etc. Thus, lo-v-a, in the fields; kut-a, on the hand; mit-mhu-in, in the eye-sight. In and a are very common, and are often used to form locatives and adverbial expressions; thus, lhim-tak-in, joy great in, joyfully; na-sha-deo-v-in, trouble great in, intensely.

Adjectives.—Adjectives follow the noun they qualify, and postpositions are added to them and not to the qualified noun; thus, khua-lam la-tak-a, village far-very-to. The suffix of the comparative is lem; thus, nao-pang lem, younger; a-len lem, bigger. The superlative seems to be marked by adding tak, very; thus, puan tha tak, cloth good very, the best cloth.

Numerals.—The numerals follow the word they qualify. Pa-khat is 'one' and pa-nhih, two, both formed with the generic prefix pa. Other numerals do not occur. In seems to mean 'both.'

Pronouns.—The following *Personal pronouns* occur:—Singular,—

 kei, ka, I.
 i-ni, i, thou.
 a-ma, an, a, he, it.

 ka, my.
 nang-a, i, thy.
 a, his.

 ka-ta, mine.
 i-ta, thine.

 ka, mi, me.
 a, him.

Plural,—

kan, we. an, they, their, them.

The forms ka, i-ni, i, an, a; kan, an, are used as pronominal prefixes with verbs, see below.

The following *Demonstrative pronouns* seem to occur, an, an—chu, this; hi, hi—hi, this; chu, chu—chun, chu-hai—chun, that; kha, ha, that. Ha only occurs after tak, with the same meaning as kha, and is perhaps only a miswriting.

There are no Relative pronouns. The demonstrative pronoun is used as a kind of correlative. Thus, ziang-tin kām vok-in a bak kha, whatever food the pigs they ate, that; se-bāng-te thao (or a-thao) tak kha, calf fat very, that. A relative clause may also be formed by means of the noun of agency. Thus,—

i nao-pasal hi i sum bak-ral-vong-tu hi.
thy son this thy property ate-away-all-who this.

An Interrogative pronoun is ia-ma, what? thus, chu ia-ma ni-ta-leh, that what has happened?

The following Indefinite pronouns occur:—tu-ma-nih, a certain; iang-tin, some; ziang-tin, whatever; tu-khom, anyone; iang-khom, anything; hai-khom, any.

Verbs.—Verbs are conjugated in person and number by means of pronominal prefixes. The following occur:—

ka, I; kan, we: i, thou: an, a, he; an, they.

When the subject is a neuter noun, the singular particle is also used in the plural. Thus vok-in a-bak, the pigs they ate. After tu-khom, anyone, the plural particle is used; thus, tu-khom-in an-pe-noh-a, anyone they gave not. The prefix of the second person singular seems to be i-ni in i-ni pek-ngai-noh, thou to-give-consideredst-not. Ni is, however, perhaps a verbal prefix. Prefixes are dropped before the imperative and when the subject is an interrogative pronoun. In a-nao-pasal a-len-lem lo-v-a om, the son

the big-more fields in was, the omission seems only to be apparent, the prefix a having been fused into one sound with the a of lo-v-a.

The root alone is used to denote present and past tenses; thus, a ni, he is; a ta, he said. The suffix a, probably a verb substantive, may be added. Thus, a tho-v-a a pa kuam-a a fe-tah-a, he arose (or arising) his father-to he went. Compare also conjunctive participle, below.

The suffix of Past tenses is to or tah; thus, a fe-tah, he went. A kind of Perfect is effected by adding the verb substantive; thus, a hong-rhing-nok a ni, he came-alive-again it is, he has come alive again. This form implies that the action really took place. In the case of transitive verbs this mode of expression may convey the idea of passivity. In lha-tak-a a-la-om-lai-in, far-very he-was-time-at, a prefix la seems to give the force of the past time. Compare the corresponding forms in Aimol, etc.

The Future is formed by inserting the pronominal prefix between the root and the verb tih. Thus, va-rhit-ka-tih, I will go and say. In tho-ka-ta, I will arise, the final ta is contracted from ti-a. Compare the corresponding forms in Hallam, etc.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is roh, or ro, used both in the singular and in the plural; thus, pe-roh, give; that-ro, kill you. A first person plural is formed by prefixing ei to the future suffix tih; thus, bak-ei-tih, let us eat. Compare the corresponding form in Hallām, pp. 196 and f.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. The pronominal prefix indicating the person may be prefixed. Thus, a-bak a-nuam-a, to eat he wished; lám-tak-a om a-tha, happily to-live that-good-is. To this form words are added to mark the connection with what follows, such as le, leh, and, when; phing-le, when; lai-in, lei-in, at the time, when. Thus, lha-tak-a a-la-om lai-in, far-very he-yet-was time-at, when he was yet very far off. The suffix ding, or ding-in, is used to form an infinitive of purpose. Thus, pe-ding-in, in order to give. In lám-na-ding, for rejoicing, this suffix is added to a verbal noun ending in na. Similar forms are used in Langrong, etc. Compare also a-ma-ding-in, for his sake.

A Participle used to replace the first of two connected imperatives is formed by adding the suffix la or lan, to which a pronominal element, denoting the person to which the participle refers, is prefixed. Thus, hang-la-un-lan that-ro, here-bringing-you kill.

Conjunctive and Adverbial participles are formed by adding the locative suffixes a and in. Thus, a khám-vong-a a fe-tah, he collecting he went; hong-tlung-tám-in a hong-rhiat-a, being-about-to-come-back he heard. Compare above.

A Noun of agency is formed by means of the suffix tu; thus, i nao-pasal i sum bak-ral-vong-tu, thy son thy property ate-up-all-who. See Relative pronouns, above.

There is no *Passive voice*. Instead of 'I am seen' we must say 'somebody saw me.' Thus, *kan-mhu-nok-ta a-nih*, he has been seen again by us, *lit*. we saw him, again it is.

Compound verbs are formed by means of prefixes or by suffixing other verbs or particles. The following prefixes occur:—hang, signifying motion upwards, or towards; lo, signifying motion towards; and va, signifying motion on level ground. Thus, hangla, to go up and bring; lo-don, to answer; va-rhil, to go and say. Causatives are formed by suffixing tin; thus, hang-bun-tin-roh, cause him to put on. Desideratives are formed by suffixing nuam; thus, a loi-nuam-noh-a, he to enter-wished-not. Other words suffixed in order to form compound verbs are, nok or nák, again; shen, to be able to finish; tâm, to be about; tan, to begin; vong, all; zing, always; zo, completely, etc.

The Negative particle is $n\ddot{a}$, noh; thus, ni-sh $\ddot{a}t$ - $n\ddot{a}$ -tak-in, days-long-not-many-in; an pe-noh-a, they gave not. Compare the negative particle $n\ddot{o}$ in Rāngkhōl, Langrong, etc. In one place the negative lo, common in Lushēi, is used; thus, bak-shen-lo-v-a, to-eat-finish-able-being-not.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

MHĀR.

(LUSHAI HILLS.)

(Major J. Shakespear, C.I.E., D.S.O., I.S.C., 1900.)

tu-na-ma-nih Mi fa-pa pa-nhih a nei-a. A-nao-pang-lem-in a Man a-certain sons twohe had. The-young-more his ' Ka pa kuam-a, pa ro ka chan-tum mi pe-roh.' a · My father father to, property-of my share me give, he ta. Chuang-chun \mathbf{a} sum chu an in nhin shem-rel-a. goodsThereupon his thatsaid. thosebothto he divided. Ni-shât-nâ-tak-in a-nao-pang-lem-in suma-reng-in khâm-vong-a, a goodsDay-long-not-very-in the-young-more · all he collected-all. khua-lam latak-a fe-tah. Chu a khua chun-in hoi-ta-bek-in very-to went. That village-place far hevillage that-in comfortably-very chu a bo-mhang-ta-vong-a. a om-a, a sum A mhang-zo-vong-le he lived, his goods that he away-spent-all. He spent-completely-all-when khua tiang chu na-sha-deo-vin bak-ding a tla-sham-a. Chuang-chun an tam-a, village in that trouble-great-in they hungered, eating-for he lacked. Then tu-kuam-am shin thoh-in a chu-hai khua chun va-thang. Chu mi-pa thatvillagethat-of a-certain-with work doing he went-stayed. That man thlai chun vok pe-ding-in lo tiang a thuai-a. Ziang-tin that pig's food give-in-order-to fields his tohesent. Whatever husks vok-in bak kha a-ma khom a-puar-tak a-bak a nuam-a. they atethathis belly the-pigs it-full-very to-eat hewished. iang-khom tu-khom-in an pe-noh-a. \boldsymbol{A} harh-nak-phing-le, anything anyone He theygave-not. became-sensible-again-when, 'Ka kuam-a sum-lhâ-hai bu pa bak-shen-lo-va nei an tam-thia withrice to-eat-finish-cannot 'My father servants gottheymany-very kei la-khi hi-lai-hin von-tam-in ka thi-vang-vang-a. Tho-ka-ta I even this-time-this-in hunger-from and Idie-shall. Arise-I-will-and pa kuam-a va-rhil-ka-tih, "Ka ka van-a pa mi chung-a leh my father togo-tell-I-will, " Му father sky-of manbefore andnang-a mit-mhu-in iang-tin ka thâ-shual, ka mhing i nao-pasal a-ring eye-sight-in something your I did-wrong, myname thy tlak ni-noh, i kuam-a sum-lhâh pa-khat ang-in mi shiam-ve-roh," worthy Iam-not, thee with servant one likeme make-also,"

Chuang-chun a ting-ka-tih.' tho-va a ра kuam-a a fe-tah-a. Chuang-chun say-I-will. Thereupon he arose his father tohe went. Thereupon lha-tak-a a-la-om-lai-in a lo-mhu-a a khâ-ngai-a a tlan-a a a pan pitiedfar-very he-yet-was-time-at his father he saw heheran his chest a shuk-tua a fâp-a. A kuam-a a nao-pasal-in, 'Ka van-a mi kuam-a pa he embraced he kissed. Him tohisson, 'My father sky-of man leh nang-a mit-mhu-in iang-tin ka thâ-shual. Ka mhing nao-pasal andeye-sight-in thy something I did-wrong. Mynamethy son a-ring tlak ka ni-noh,' a ta. Ni-khom-sian pan suak-hai \mathbf{a} to-bear worthy \boldsymbol{I} am-not, hesaid. Nevertheless his father hisslaves kuam-a, · Puan tha tak · kha hang-la-un-la hang-choi-tir-roh, to, ' Cloth thatgoodvery . here-bringing-you here-put-on-cause, hiskut-a kut-sebi-hai. \mathbf{a} khe-a phei-khok hang-bun-tir-roh, se-bâng te hands-on hand-rings, his feet-on boots here-put-on-cause, cow young a-thao-tak hang-la-un-lan ha that-ro, lhim-tak-in bak-ei-tih. hi fat-very thathere-bringing-you kill, joy-great-in eat-us-let, thiska nao-pasal hi thihong-rhing-nok a \mathbf{a} ni, an mhang nhu kan myson this he dead-was he came-alive-again it is, he lost after we mhu-nok-ta nih. 2 \mathbf{a} ta. Chuang-chun lhim-tak-in an saw-again itis,' he said. Thereupon joy-great-in they om-tan-nok-ta-a. to-be-commenced-again.

 \mathbf{A} nao-pasal a-len-lem lo-va om. In-a hong-tlung-tâm-in Hisson the-big-more fields-in was. House-to come-arrive-about-being iang-tin shut-ri le an lam-thâm \mathbf{a} hong-rhiat-a. Chuang-chun some music-sound andtheir dance-noise he heard. Thereupon suak tu-ma-nih sham-a, 6 Chu ia-ma ni-ta-leh?' \mathbf{a} ta a zât-a. slavea-certain called, 'That what happened? hesaidhe asked. ٠I shang hong-tlung-tah-a, him-tak-in a-mhu-lei-in ' Thy younger-brother hecame-arrived. safely his-seeing-time-at thy pan se-bâng-te thao tak kha а that,' a ta. Chuang-chun a fathercalffat very thathe killed,' he said. Thereupon his lung shen-a in-a an loi-nuam-noh-a, a a hong-shuak-a pa heart heated house-in he to-enter-wished-not, his father he came-looked-out thlem-a. an Nih-man 'Rhe-roh, pa kuam-a. kum-khâ persuaded. Nevertheless hisfuther to. ' Listen, always hi-ang-chen-hi shin ka thoh-a, i thu lakhi ka nhial-ngai-noh-a, now-till-now thywork I did, thy word even I to-disobey-considered-not rual-hai kakuam-a lâm-na-ding kel hai-khom ini pek-ngai-noh. my friends withrejoicing-for goat anythou to-give-consideredst-not. Chuang-chun i nao-pasal hi nâ-chi-zuar kuam-a i sum bak-ral-vong-tu Thereupon thyson this harlots withthygoods ate-up-all-who

i a-ma-ding-in se-bâng-te thao tak kha hong-fe-phing-leh \mathbf{hi} thatfat thouback-went-when him-for calf very this he ' Ka ta-lo-don-a. nao-pasal ka lo-that-pek-zel-a,' \mathbf{a} · My sonto-be-killed-gavest-continuously,' said-back-answered. heme kuam-a i om-zing, an rohka-ta poh chu i-ta vong an alsothatthineallthiswiththou livest-always, this property minetha an-nâ Lhim tak le lâm tak-a oma rih. good-isto-be itthis-for certainly (?). Joy great and happiness great-in thi hong-rhing-nok nih, hi hi i shang \mathbf{a} a an came-alive-again dieditis, he thishethisyounger-brother nih, mhu-nok-ta a ta. mhang-a kan a said. is, itlost-was saw-again we

CHOTE, MUNTUK, AND KARUM.

Of these tribes only a few remnants are said to exist in the hills in and around the valley of Manipur. There are no specimens of the dialects available, but they are stated to belong to the Old Kuki stock.

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PURUM.

The Pūrūms are a small tribe in the hills around the valley of Manipur. There is also a small village in the valley, in the neighbourhood of Aimol. Their number is estimated to be between 500 and 1,000. Short notes on the tribe are found in the following:—

AUTHORITIES-

McCulloch, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Munipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India (Foreign Department). No. xxvii. Calcutta, 1859. Short note on the Poorcoms on p. 65.

Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Short note on Poorcom on p. 238.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh in the Pūrūm village in the valley of Manipur. The dialect spoken in that village shows many traces of Meithei influence, especially in the vocabulary. It is, however, more closely connected with such languages as Hallām, Langrong, Rāngkhōl, etc.

The remarks on the Pūrūm dialect which follow are entirely based on the forms occurring in the specimens and in the list of words and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—It is often almost impossible to state whether a vowel is long or U is always marked as long, and o as short, but both may certainly be either long or short. An accented final vowel is probably long, but is shortened when the stress is transferred to another syllable. This much may be inferred from forms such as arr-hā, good; but ha-no, bad; bak- \bar{a} and $b\bar{a}k$ -a, eating, etc. We have, however, no information as to where the stress should come, and the marking of long vowels by the original writer being rather inconsistent, it is impossible to state the rules for the shortening. I have, therefore, left forms such as bak-ā and bāk-a, eating, as I found them without making any attempt to introduce a consistent spelling throughout. Diphthongs occur very frequently, but they are, in most cases, interchangeable with single vowels. Thus, we find ma-nūi and ma-ni, they; ngāi and ngē, to wish; yaū, yo, and yūi, a suffix of the past tense; amoi and amo, the interrogative particle, etc. It is possible that some of these various spellings are attempts to denote the sounds ö and ü, but we are not able to make a definite statement. Y and w are euphonic after i, \bar{e} and \bar{u} , respectively. Thus, in $t\bar{e}$ -y- \bar{a} , house small in ; thaū-w-ā, arising, etc. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, $sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$ and $sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}-b\bar{a}$, son; $pi-n\bar{u}$ and $bi-n\bar{u}$, a female suffix; $kai-ch\bar{u}$, I; $mo-j\bar{u}$, he, etc. Compare the corresponding change in Meithei. S and y are apparently used alternatively in the suffix of the past tense, $ya\bar{u}$, yo, and $sa\bar{u}$, so. The same suffix is once also written cho. S is perhaps, in this case, written for z, y and z being interchangeable in many connected languages. L and r are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, $r\bar{u}p\bar{a}$ silver, $l\bar{u}p\bar{a}$, rupee; lal, property, na-ral, thy property; arr-hā and kol-hā, good. Compare Meithei, where r is substituted for l after a vowel. A final k is often silent; thus, $s\bar{u}k$ and sū, slave; ā-nok, no, but ha-no, good-not, bad; tik-ti, probably for tik-tik, most, etc. Kh and h are apparently interchangeable in the numeral $a-kh\bar{a}$, one. Compare $riy\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$, hundred. The same interchange occurs in ar-hong- $p\bar{a}$, cock, and $n\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{u}$, this village, as compared with Kolren arr-khong, cock, and khūo, village. Final r is sometimes doubled; thus, $k\bar{u}rr$, ear; a-sarr- $n\bar{u}$, sister; arr- $h\bar{a}$ and ar- $h\bar{a}$, good, etc. A final ng seems often only to mark a nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel. Thus, we find no and nong, not; $ch\bar{u}$ and $ch\bar{u}ng$, that.

We have no information with regard to tones in this dialect.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are apparently only few prefixes, and no suffixes used in the same otiose way as in the Nāgā languages. A is prefixed to nouns and adjectives; thus, $a-p\bar{a}$, a man; $a-p\bar{a}$ -o, O father; a-hong, neck; $a-l\bar{a}$, far; $a-n\bar{a}y-\bar{a}$, near; a-tam, many. In $arr-h\bar{a}$, good, arr seems to be used in the same way. This prefix is sometimes the possessive pronoun of the third person; thus, $a-k\bar{u}t-\bar{a}$, his-hand-on, but has usually been superseded as such by ma. A prefix beginning with k occurs in forms such as ka-don, whatever; $ko-t\bar{a}$, saying; and $kolh\bar{a}$ in kai $ka-w\bar{e}l$ $kolh\bar{a}$, I may strike. Ma is usually the possessive pronoun of the third person, but is also used in a wider sense; thus, ma-khai, whatever; ma-tik, worthy, etc.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral a- $kh\bar{a}$, one, is used as an Indefinite article, while relative clauses, pronominal prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns supply the place of a Definite article.

Nouns.—The prefixes a and ma which occur in the list of words before nouns of relationship are the possessive pronoun of the third person. Thus, a-sarr-nū, sister, it. his sister; ma-namai, wife, lit. his woman. Compare, however, Prefixes and Suffixes, above.

Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings and is only marked when it does not appear from the context. It is distinguished by means of suffixes, and, in the case of human beings, also by the use of different words. Thus, $ma-p\bar{a}$, his father; $ma-n\bar{u}$, his mother: $a-p\bar{a}$, a man; namai, a woman: $a-p\bar{a}$ $t\bar{e}$, a man young, a boy; namai $t\bar{e}$, a girl. The usual suffixes, in the case of human beings, are $p\bar{a}$, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female. Thus, $sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}-p\bar{a}$, son; $sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$, daughter. In mi $a-kh\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, a man, the suffix $p\bar{a}$ is added to the numeral $a-kh\bar{a}$, one. The gender of animals is distinguished by the suffixes $p\bar{a}$, $a-p\bar{a}$, $chal-p\bar{a}$, and $tang-p\bar{a}$, for males, and namai, a-mai, $pi-n\bar{u}$, and $bi-n\bar{u}$, for females. Thus, $\bar{a}r-hong-p\bar{a}$, a cock; sa-korr $ap\bar{a}$, a horse; sa-korr namai, a mare: sil $chal-p\bar{a}$, a bull; sil a-mai, a cow: $\bar{u}i$ $tang-p\bar{a}$, a dog; $\bar{u}i$ $bi-n\bar{u}$, a bitch: $k\bar{e}l$ $chal-p\bar{a}$, a he-goat; $k\bar{e}l$ $pi-n\bar{u}$, a she-goat. The suffixes $chal-p\bar{a}$, $tang-p\bar{a}$, and $pi-n\bar{u}$ or $bi-n\bar{u}$, are compound suffixes. chal is a male suffix in Hallām, Langrong, and other dialects; tang is used alone in Kolrēn, and is probably identical with tong in $ha\bar{u}-tong$, a cat; pi or $p\bar{u}i$ is a very common female suffix in Meithei, Kolrēn, Siyin, Hallām, Langrong, etc. To these are added the suffixes $p\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{u}$ respectively.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to denote the plural some word meaning 'all,' 'many,' etc., is added. Thus, $\bar{u}i$ tang- $p\bar{a}$ a-tam, dog male many, dogs; $ma-s\bar{u}k$ $ng\bar{a}i$, his-slave many, his slaves.

Case.—The Nominative and Accusative do not require any suffix. Ta or dā is sometimes added to the object. Thus mo-ta ri-yā, him seeing; chū-ta ril-ā, this saying. It marks the personal object with causative verbs; thus, kai-ta sē-lo na-sūk a-khā chang-pi, me hired thy-servant one to-be-cause; a-pā a-khā-dā ron-pi-so, man one to-wear-he-caused. Ning-ā, to, is used in the same way; thus, pūn arrhā choi-yā-fāw-ā sa-nāū ning-ā pāi-pi, cloth good carrying-coming son to to-wear-cause. Ta is also used with the meaning 'with'; thus, nang-chū kai-ta am-hā-sāimē, thou me-with art-together; ka-than-rū-lē-ta thēng-hā-ā, my friends with being-together. It seems to mean 'concerning,' 'towards,' 'for.' Compare Meithei dā, in, at, to.

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The suffix of the agent is $n\bar{a}$; thus, $ma-p\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$ ma-ral $sam-s\bar{u}-so$, his father his-property divided. $N\bar{a}$ is often added to the subject of an intransitive verb. Thus, $ka-p\bar{a}-n\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{e}-y\bar{a}$ am, my father house small-in is. This $n\bar{a}$ is perhaps different word, and is probably the demonstrative pronoun $n\bar{a}$, this.

The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, without any suffix. Thus, sa-korr hi $k\bar{u}m$, horse this years, the years of this horse; na- $p\bar{a}$ in- \bar{a} na-sa- $n\bar{a}\bar{u}$ i- $y\bar{a}$ am-amo, thy father's house-in sons how-many are? how many sons are there in thy father's house?

The stem alone, or with an o added, is used as a Vocative; thus ka-sa- $n\bar{a}\bar{u}$, my son; a- $p\bar{a}$ -o, O father. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are :— \bar{a} , in, to, with; $han\bar{a}$, in; $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, from among; $m\bar{a}$, before; ning- \bar{a} , to, from; $n\bar{u}$ - $va\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{u}$ -ting- \bar{a} , behind; $n\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , after; $t\bar{a}$, with; $th\bar{u}y\bar{a}$, under, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives are often preceded by the prefix a; thus, a- $l\bar{a}$, far; a- $nga\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}$, white. The suffix $p\bar{a}$, forming relative participles, is often added. Thus, $n\bar{a}\bar{u}$ -pang- $p\bar{a}$, the younger; $p\bar{u}m$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, all. When the adjectives are used as verbs the ordinary verbal suffixes are added. Thus, $s\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{e} , he is high; kai-ko ka-chang ar- $h\bar{a}$, I my-being good-is, I may be; $ch\bar{u}m$ -so, it is proper. Adjectives usually follow, but sometimes also precede the noun they qualify. The postpositions $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, from among, and ta, concerning, are used as particles of comparison, and tik or tik-ti may be added to the adjective. Thus, a-mo- $n\bar{a}$ arr- $h\bar{a}$ -tik-ti, he good-much-much, better; a-ni $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ $n\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}i$ $s\bar{a}ng$ -tik, two from-among he high-much, higher; a-tam $k\bar{a}r\bar{a}$ mo- $n\bar{a}$ $s\bar{a}ng$ -tik, his-sister concerning his-brother tall-much, his brother is taller than his sister.

The **Numerals** are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—

kai, I.nang, thou.amo, mo, he.ka, my.na, thy.a, ma, his. $ka-t\bar{a}$, mine. $nang-t\bar{a}$, $na-t\bar{a}$, thine. $ma-t\bar{a}$, his.

Plural,-

ka-ni, we. nang-ai, you. ma-ni, they. ka-ni- $t\bar{a}$, our. nang-ai- $t\bar{a}$, your. ma-ni, their.

Words such as $ch\bar{u}$ or $j\bar{u}$, that; ko, that, also, are often added to the pronouns in order to emphasise them; thus, $kai\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, I; $mo\text{-}j\bar{u}$, he; kai-ko, I, etc. A suffix in is added to the nominative in a few instances in the list. Thus, kai-in chang $f\bar{u}ring$, I was; mo-n $th\bar{e}ng\text{-}song$, he went. The possessive pronouns ka, my; na, thy; a and ma, his, are used in the genitive, but also the fuller forms. Thus, ka-tong, my word, of me; nang-tong, of thee. The forms ending in $t\bar{a}$ are apparently used in the same way; thus, $ma\text{-}t\bar{a}$ $la\bar{u}\text{-}w\bar{a}$, his fields-to. The plural of the second person is nangai, i.e. nang-ngai. $Ma\text{-}n\bar{u}i$, they, occurs in the specimen, but also ma-ni.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hi and hi-ta, this; $n\bar{a}$, this, that; $h\bar{a}$, ha- $n\bar{a}$, hāo, and $n\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$, that; $ch\bar{u}$ and $ch\bar{u}$ -ta, that; mo-ta, that; $m\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$, that.

There are no Relative pronouns. The suffix $p\bar{a}$, which often is added to adjectives, belongs to a relative participle. But in most cases no suffix is added. Thus, $n\bar{a}$ ram- \bar{a}

am mi a-khā-pā, that country-in being man one; wok bāk sa-wāi, pigs eating husks, the husks which the pigs ate; na-ral na-mai ning-ā pē-yā māng-pi na-sa-nāū, thy-property women to giving wasting thy son, thy son who gave thy property to women and wasted it.

Interrogative pronouns.—A- $t\bar{u}$, who? i, what? $iy\bar{e}$ $aj\bar{e}$, why? $iy\bar{a}$, how much? how many? Thus, $a-t\bar{u}$ $sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}-t\bar{e}$, whose boy? $na-p\bar{a}$ $in-\bar{a}$ $na-sa-n\bar{a}\bar{u}$ $i-y\bar{a}$ am-amo, thy-father's house-in sons how-many are? $n\bar{a}$ $i-y\bar{a}$ am-amoi, that how-much is? Another interrogative pronoun occurs in na-ming alo $tiy\bar{a}m\bar{e}$, what is thy name? but I cannot analyse this sentence. The base of the interrogative pronoun $t\bar{u}$ is also used as an indefinite pronoun. Thus, $t\bar{u}$ $ak\bar{a}$, anyone.

Verbs.—Verbs are not conjugated in person and number. Ka, my, and a, his, are in a few instances used before the verb in order to denote the person of the subject. Thus, ka-bak-ang, my-eating-for, in order that I should eat; ka-ma-tik-ni-yo, I-worthy-am-not; a-thiyang-sā, he was dead; a-māng-sā, he was lost. But such instances are very few.

Thus, $n\bar{a}$ i- $y\bar{a}$ am-amoi, this how-much is ? $n\bar{a}\bar{u}$ -pang- $p\bar{a}$ ril, the younger said. The suffix \bar{a} , which usually forms adverbial clauses and conjunctive participles, may be added, apparently without changing the meaning. Thus, kai- $n\bar{a}$ $w\bar{e}l$ - \bar{a} , I strike; $ch\bar{u}p$ - \bar{a} , he kissed. \bar{E} is used in the same way; thus, nang- $ch\bar{u}$ kai-ta am- $h\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}im$ - \bar{e} , thou me-with art-together-always; $lh\bar{e}m$ - \bar{e} , he entreated. Yang and $y\bar{e}ng$ are sometimes inserted before this \bar{e} ; thus, piyang- \bar{e} , he is giving; $thaiy\bar{e}ng$ - \bar{e} , he heard. A suffix $s\bar{a}$ occurs in forms such as chang- $s\bar{a}$, it is; a-thiyang- $s\bar{a}$, he was dead; a- $m\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{a}$, he was lost. It is perhaps identical with the suffix of the past tense. $S\bar{e}$ or $ch\bar{e}$ is added in a few instances; thus, nang $th\bar{e}ng$ -song- $s\bar{e}$, thou goest; $b\bar{a}k$ - $p\bar{e}$ - $sa\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{e}$, thou gavest a feast; nang- $n\bar{a}$ $w\bar{e}l$ - $piya\bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{e}$, thou didst strike. It seems to be an assertive suffix, compare Burmese $chh\bar{e}$ (pronounced $s'\bar{a}$).

The usual suffix of the past is yaŭ, yo, or yūi. Thus, ngāi-ni-yaū and ngāi-ni-yo, herefused; tūng-yūi(-yā), he-arrived(-when). In ka-ma-tik-ni-yo, I am no more worthy, it is used to denote the present time, the action being considered as an established fact. We often find saū and so instead of yaū and yo. Thus, sū-lāk-saū, they began to quarrel; thēngso, he went. Soi in one instance is substituted for so; thus, tūla-am-soi, he joined. Cho in theng-pi-su-cho, they drove him away, seems to be identical with so. All these suffixes seem to be derived from a common source, probably a verb yaū or zaū, to finish, to complete. Compare Rāngkhōl jōi. It is worth noting, however, that soi or sui is a sign of the past tense in Bodo languages. The s-suffix is, therefore, perhaps different from the y-suffix, and should be compared with the suffix sang in Lai, and song in Tibetan. Compare also Compound verbs, below. Other suffixes of the past are pi-yaū, pi-yo, pi-yang, si-yang, si-yā and sēng. Thus mo-na wēl-pi-yaū, he struck; ril-pi-yo, he said; ol-pi-yo, he fell in want; lāl-pi-yang-ē, I sinned; kai-nā wēl-pi-yang, I struck; tūk-sēr-si-yang, he was found again; thēng-si-yā, I have walked; kai thēng-sēng-ē, I went. Siyang, siyā and sēng seem to contain a verb si, perhaps meaning 'to be.' Compare Banjogī si and shi, to be. Piyaū, piyo, and piyang seem to contain a verb pi. Pi means 'to give,' and is also used to form causatives. All these forms are, therefore, probably no real past tenses, but compound verbs. The same is probably the case with furing in kai-in chang-furing, I was, etc.

A Present Definite seems to be formed by adding ang or ing; thus, pi-yang-ē, he is giving; kai-nā wēl-song-ing, I am striking; and probably also kai thēng-song-ing, I

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go. This tense may also be formed, in a periphrastic way, by means of the verb am, to be, to remain. Thus, sil sēl-a am, cattle tending he-is; sa-korr chong-a am, horse-on sitting he-is. A corresponding Imperfect is kai-nā wēl am-song, I was striking.

The usual suffix of the Future is ang, as in Lushei and partly in Khongzai. Thus, pē-yang, I will give; thi-yang-si-yang, I am dying, lit. perhaps, die-will-be-will. Another suffix is tik, in ril-thing-tik-ē, I will say; sa-wāi lūko bak-ā won hop-tik-ē tā ning-tinga-chaū, 'husks even eating belly fill-will' saying wishing-after-even, though he wished to fill his belly even with husks. Chaū in this last instance is probably the demonstrative pronoun chū.

The root alone is often used as an Imperative; thus, an, look; theng, go; si-si, put. A is sometimes prefixed; thus, $a-b\bar{a}k$, eat; $a-h\bar{u}$, bind. A suffix o, perhaps identical with the vocative suffix, is added in pē-yo, give; nūngāi-ya woi-yo, happy let-us-be, etc. Tik in wā-tik, come, seems to be identical with the future suffix.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, na-sa-nāū chang ka-ma-tik-ni-yo, thy son to be I-worthy-not; ka-ni nūngāi hāraū chūm-so, we to-be-merry to-be-glad has-become-proper. A suffix a or a is added in hung-su-wa lam-a, drumbeating (and) dancing. The form ending in $ya\bar{u}$ is treated as a verbal noun of the past or completed action. The verbal nouns are treated as ordinary nouns, and may be combined with postpositions, etc., in order to form adverbial clauses. Thus, rūng-ni ti-tē amā, days few remaining-in, after few days; ma-pot nē-no-wā, his-load managing-not-in, being unable to carry his load; fāū-yaū-lē-chū, coming-finishing-time-just, as soon as he came; ma-sa-nāū nā-no-sā-no-wā lē-yaū-lē-chū, his-son safely returning-finishing-timejust, when his son returned safely (compare yaū-lē-chū, if, in the list); a-lā am-lēyā, far being-time-at, when he was still far off; hāū-sū-nūng-ā, wasting-after, after he had wasted.

The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is ang; compare Future. Thus, chang-ang, to be; a-wel-ang, to strike; ka-bak-ang, my-eating-for, in order that I might eat. The purpose may also be expressed in other ways. Thus, wok sel-o tā sē-pi-so, 'pigs tend,' saying he-sent; in lūt-o tā ngāi-ni-yaū, 'house enter,' saying he-wished-not; won hoptik-ē tā ning-ting-a-chaū 'belly I-fill-will' saying though-he-wished.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been mentioned in connection with Relative pronouns. The suffix $p\bar{a}$ is also used to form a noun of agency; thus, $y\bar{a}o$ - $s\bar{e}l$ - $b\bar{a}$, sheep-tender, shepherd; $la\bar{u}$ - \bar{e} - $b\bar{a}$, cultivator. The verbal noun with the suffix \bar{a} is used as an Adverbial and a Conjunctive participle. Thus, nungāi-ya woi-yo, happily let us-remain; $w\bar{e}l$ - \bar{a} a- $h\bar{u}$, beating bind, beat and bind. The form $t\bar{a}$, saying, is perhaps a contraction from tā-ā or ti-ā. The list of words furnishes chang-ang-nong, being, having been, and thēng-sū-so, gone. The latter form seems to be the past tense, perhaps used as a relative participle.

There is no Passive voice. Kai-ta wēl-ē, I am struck, literally means 'me-concerning striking-takes-place.' I-ti in kai-ta wēl-ang-i-ti, I shall be struck, seems to be connected with the ti which is used in the formation of the future in Hallam and connected dialects.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning of the principal verb. Both verbs are sometimes inflected. Thus, tān-a-lūt-a, running-entering, running towards; choi-yā-fāwā, carrying-coming, bringing; hiyā-kē-yā, doing. In most cases, however, only one suffix is added. Thus, wā-kat-so, they-went-complained; lā-tin-pi-so, totake-bring-caused, caused to be brought, etc. The verb pi, to give, forms Causatives. Thus, chang-pi, to-be-cause, appoint; ron-pi-so, he caused to be carried; $m\bar{a}ng$ -pi, he wasted, etc. $Ng\bar{e}$, which seems to be identical with $ng\bar{a}i$, forms Desideratives. Thus, $l\bar{a}im\bar{a}\ l\bar{a}$ - $ng\bar{e}$ - $t\bar{a}\ am$ - $h\bar{a}\ a$ - $p\bar{a}\ h\bar{a}$, a little take-wishing-with being-together man that, that man in the presence of him who claimed a little. Other words added in order to form compound verbs are $h\bar{a}$, together; $l\bar{a}k$, begin; $s\bar{e}r$, back, again. I cannot ascertain the meaning of $s\bar{u}$, $s\bar{u}k$, $s\bar{u}ng$, and song, in forms such as:-sam- $s\bar{u}$ -so, he divided; $la\bar{u}$ -sing- $s\bar{u}k$ -so, his-mind-wise-became; am- $s\bar{u}ng$, it remains; $mo\ th\bar{e}ng$ -song, he goes, he went, etc. Compare, however, the suffix of the past tense.

The Negative particle is ni; thus, $ng\bar{a}i$ -ni-yo, he wished-not. It is used as a verb in $l\bar{a}im\bar{a}$ ni- $ya\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{e}$, a-little is-not, it is not sufficient. Ni seems always to be followed by the suffix $ya\bar{u}$ or yo, and the forms no, nok, and nong, are used when this suffix is wanting. They seem to contain a negative prefix n, which is identical with ni, and a verb substantive o, ok, or ong. Compare Introduction, p. 19, and the Tibetan affirmative suffix o. No, nok, nong, occur in words such as: $-p\bar{e}$ -no, thou gavest-not; \bar{a} -nok, no; yoi-no- \bar{e} -nong, I disobeyed not, etc.

The Interrogative participle is a-moi, a-mo, or mo.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

[No. 30.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

PŪRŪM.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

kārā nāū-pang-pā Ma-nūi ani am-ē. Miakhā-pā sa-nāū-pā ani Them two from-amongst younger Menwere. one sons twoka-chang-ang-ma-khai lal-thūm · apā-o, ril, ma-pā ningā property my-share-for-all father-O, said, his-father topūm-nā-pā ma-nūi ningā ani ma-ral hāo kai-ta pēyo.' Ma-pā-nā tothemtwogive.' His-father his-wealth allto-me thatma-sa-nāŭ-pā nāŭ-pang-pā-nā ma-ral pūm-nā-pā sam-sū-so. Rüng-ni titē am-ā allhis-wealth his-son younger divided. Days some remaining ram-hanā oknūwā ma-ral a-lā akhā theng-so; $n\bar{a}$ ronā ram place-in wickedly his-wealth carrying place distant one-(to) went; that $n\bar{a}$ hāŭ-sū-nūngā ram pūm-nā-pā hāū-sū-so. Lal pūm-nā-pā place having-been-thrown-away thatall Wealth allflung. mo ol-pi-yo. Mo-nā nã hanā nānā bū a-tam tānga, Hethathe became-wretched. in rice became-dear, andvery Nānā theng-a tūla-am-soi. ram-ā akhā-pā ningā am mi That was-joined-with. place-in living man one togoing wak laū-wā sē-pi-so. Mo-nā mi-nā sēlo tā mo-ta ma-tā wok (by) swine field-to sent. Hе man-by his swine tend saying him ning-ting-achaŭ bāk sawāi lūko bak-ā won hop-tik-ē $t\bar{a}$ will-fill saying although-wished which-was-eaten even-that eating belly husks sūk-so mo-nā tū-a-khā-nā pē-ni-yo. Tūn-chaū lau-sing having-come he it-was-not-given. sense any-one-by Now ngāi-na lūko lēm-bong-pā-bong bāk-so, ril-pi-yo, 'ka-pā sūk said, 'my-father in-abundance are-eating, I-whereas servants many even ka-won ningā thēng-ā ril-thing-tik-ē, tām-ā thi-yang-si-yang. Kai ka-pā my-belly hunger-in I my-father to going will-say, am-dying. " apā-o, lāl-piyang-ē; kai Thāirū ningā lāl-piyang-ē, na-ningā-ko "father-O, have-done-wrong, you-to-also have-done-wrong; I Godto akhā chang-pi." kai na-sa-nāŭ chang ka-ma-tik-ni-yo; kai-ta sēlo na-sūk worthy-am-not; me hired your-servant one be-let." I your-child to-be ma-pā-na mo-ta riyā, Mo-nā thauwā ningā fāū-so, a-lā am-ley-ā ma-pā far being-time-at his-father him seeing, his-father tocame. chūp-ā. Ma-sa-nāū-pā-nā ma-pā a-lūng-si-yā, tān-a-lūt-a, a-hong kol-ā, embracing, kissed. His-son his-father having-compassion, running, neck

ningā ril-so. 'apā-o, kai Thāirū-ningā lāl-piyang-ē, na-mā-ko tosaid, father-0, have-done-wrong, I God-to you-before-too lāl-piyang-ē. Kai na-sa-nāū chang ka-ma-tik-ni-yo.' Nā-nā ma-pā-nā your-child have-done-wrong. I worthy-am-not.' Thereupon to-be his-father ma-sūk ngāi ningā ril-so, f pūn arrhā choiyā-fāwā sa-nāū ningā his-servants allsaid. · * garments best bringing child topāi-pi; a-kūt-ā kūt-sabik a-khā nai-pi, ma-kē-yā khongūp būr-pi; put-on; his-hand-on ring one put, his-feet-on shoes put; ka-sa-nāŭ ha-nā a-thiyang-sā, thaibak ring-sēr-ā-so-chaū; a-mang-sa, my-child this had-been-dead, again has-been-alive-as; had-been-lost, tūk-sēr-siyang; ka-ni bāk-a in-ā nūngāiya-woi-yo.' Hi-ta ril-ā has-been-found; we eating drinking merry-let-us-remain.' This saying ma-ni nūngāi-so-wē.

theyrejoiced.

Nāriyā kālā ma-sa-nāū ŭ-liën-pā laū-wā Ma-in-ā am. hi-ta That time-at his-child elder field-in His-house-to was. thishongā hūng-sūwā lām-a tbai-yēng-ē. araMo-nā ma-sük akhā coming drum-beating dancing sound heard. Hehis-servant one kokā. 'i-yē-amoi?' ril-ā sāyā. Nā-nā ma-sūk-nā sang-ē, calling, "what-is-the-matter?" saying asked. Thereupon his-servant-by replied, 'na-năŭ-pā lē-so-wē. Ma-sa-nāŭ nā-no-sā-no-wā lē-yaū-lē-chū na-pā-nā 'your-brother has-returned. His-child illness-without on-returning your-father bū Nā-chū piyang-ē.' thai-yā mo-nā a-lüng-sä in-lūto $t\bar{a}$ feast is-giving.' This hearing he being-angry house-enter saying ngāi-ni-yaū. Nā-chū-sērūk-ā ma-pā-nā sūk-ā mo-ta lhēm-ē. Nā-nā wished-not. Therefore his-father coming-out him entreated. Thereupon mo-nā ma-pā ningā sang-ē, an, kūm hichan na-sipā hivākēvā he his-father to·look, answered. years so-long your-service in-doing kai-nā na-tong khak yoi-no-e-nong; chū-ma-hakan ka-ton-pi ka-than-rūlē-tā your-words ever have-not-disobeyed; neverthelessmy-friends companions thēng-hā-ā nūng-āiyē ka-bak-ang nang-nā kēl tē. akhā lūko bāk ko-ta together-with merrily to-eat you goat young one even saying na-ral na-thūm pūm-nā-pā namai ningā mang-pi, pē-yā have-not-given: your-goods your-property allwoman toby-giving wasted, na-sa-nāŭ nā-hā fāū-yaū-lē-chū pāntrā bāk-pē-saū-sē.' Nā-nā ma-pā-nā your-child this on-coming . feast to-eat-you-gave.' Thereupon his-father ril-ā, 'ka-sa-nāū, nang-chū kai-ta nitiyā am-hā-sāimē, ka-tā ka-don my.child, you indeed me-with alwayslive-together, mine whatever-is pum-nā-pā na-tā chak. Na-nāū-pā ha-nā thi-theng-a, thai-bak ring-sēr-ā: allyours is. Your-brother thishaving-died, again being-alive; mäng-theng-ā, tūk-ā: ka-ni nūngāi hāraū chūm-so. having-been-lost, being-found; we to-be-merry to-be-glad it-is-proper.'

[No. 31.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

PŪRŪM.

SPECIMEN II.

FOLK-TALE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A PURUM.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

nē-no-wā, sang lāimā pēy-ang akhā ma-pot A-pā 'paddy some (or a little) will-give his-load being-unable-to-carry, a-certain ManMa-in a-khā-dā ron-pi-so. a-pā san, ril-ā ka-pot made-to-carry (it). His-house (another)-one manassist, saying my-load ni-yaū-wē, · lāimā pē-yā, kaithilūk a-khā sāng tüng-yüi-ya 'some (or a-little) it-is-not,' one on-giving, paddybasket on-arriving-at wā-kat-so. Rūisang-ā ma-nūi sū-lāk-saū. ngāi-ni-yo. Nā-nā-chū Court-in went-complained. began-to-quarrel. refused. Therefrom they saying Lăi-mã lā-ngē-tā lā-tin-pi-so. sāng rūi-sang-ā nā Nā-nā A-little who-claimed ordered-to-be-brought. courtpaddy that **Thereupon** thai-bak thāl-pi-yā chūng hāū a-khā sāng a-pā $h\bar{a}$ amhā putting-in again one (in) thatbagthatpaddy manin-continuance am-amoi,' rūi-sangai, 'nā ivā chak-ā sung-ser-a. Ti-te-te what is-remaining,' f that court, when-remained (in the bag) took-out. A-little 'na-dit ril-so; am-sūng,' chū-nā 'lāimā Nā-nā apā sāyā. $t\bar{a}$ said; 'you-want 'a-little is-remaining,' Thereupon man asked. saying 'theng-o,' $t\bar{a}$ chang-sā'; chū-tā ril-ā nang hā lāimā go-away, saying saying, this is'; yours a-little thisrūisangai-nā theng-pi-su-cho. mo-tā him drove-away. court

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time there was a man who was not able to carry his load. So he got another to carry it, having promised to give him some paddy in return. On coming home he then gave him a basket. The other, however, refused to accept it saying that it was nothing. They began to quarrel, and went to complain in Court. The Court ordered the paddy to be brought, and the man who claimed some paddy was asked to put it in a bag, and then to take it out again. When only a little was left in the bag, the Court asked him what was left. He answered, 'something is left.' The Court then said, 'the something you claim is here, and you may take it,' and then turned him out.

ANĀL.

The Anals are a small tribe living in the hills on the east of the Manipur valley. Their chief village is Anal in the south-east. It is stated that they belong to a set of tribes whose populations vary between 500 and 1,000 souls each. Major McCulloch has given the following account of the tribe:—

'The whole of the people in a large tract in the south-east have received the name of Anal-Namfau from the two largest villages amongst them. These people say they came from a position south of their present one, and they celebrate in their songs the beauties of the land of their origin. In personal appearance they are much like Khongjais, with whom, though they are at deadly feud, they appear to have affinity. The Anals, in more immediate connection with Munnipore, have been corrupted so far as to have given up many of their former customs. They have now no longer amongst them hereditary chiefs, but the villages in the interior retain their old habits and hereditary heads. Their houses are made like those of the Khongjais, and in their social usages there is but little difference. From its birth every male child is called "moté," and every female one "keenoo," their ears are pierced at the annual festival for this purpose, and a distinguishing name is added to the moté or keenoo, but for this there does not appear to be any fixed time, or particularity as to the name to be given. Their marriages are effected much in the same way as those of the Khongjais. After the first application for their daughter, if the parents consent and drink of the wine brought, the young man goes to the girl's father's house as accepted husband. After this the young man, four different times, feasts the bride's family. At the fourth time they settle what is to be given finally for the girl; the rich giving according to their means, and the poorer according to theirs, not less however than a pig and a piece of iron one cubit long. The want of eye-brows and eye-lashes is amongst this people admired, and the young men to render themselves attractive carefully extract them.'

AUTHORITIES-

McCulloch, Major W.,—Account of the Valley of Munnipore and of the Hill Tribes; with a Comparative Vocabulary of the Munnipore and other Languages. Selections from the Records of the Government of India. (Foreign Department.) No. xxvii. Calcutta 1859. Account of the Anal-Namfau tribe on p. 64; Vocabularies, Anal-Namfau, etc., Appendix, pp. vii. and ff.

Damant, G. H.,—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, Vol. xii, 1880, pp. 228 and ff. Note on Anal-Namfau on p. 279.

The name of the tribe, Anal, is that under which it is known to the Manipuris. Major McCulloch states that the hill tribes have also distinctive names of their own, but we have no information about these names.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Manipur. They are all due to Babu Bisharup Singh. The first specimen, a translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son, is to a great extent mixed up with Meithei forms, and this latter language seems to have largely influenced the Anāl dialect. The second specimen, a war-song, exhibits a much purer language. But there are several mistakes in the translation, and it has not, therefore, been possible to analyse it throughout. The remarks on Anāl grammar which follow are entirely based on the texts just mentioned and are given with every reserve.

Pronunciation.—The marking of long vowels is not consistent. Thus, we find $f\bar{a} \cdot n\bar{u}$, has been found; but $fa \cdot rang$, to be found; $ka \cdot p\bar{e} \cdot m\bar{a} \cdot n\bar{u}$, gave not; but $rho \cdot ma \cdot n\bar{u}$, wished not. \bar{A} is interchangeable with i in the negative particle; thus, $tha \cdot mi$, goodnot, bad; but $ikopi \cdot n\bar{a} \cdot m\bar{a} \cdot n\bar{u}$, ill-not-being. We find \bar{e} and \bar{a} in $ch\bar{e}r\bar{u}$ and $ch\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, small. The word $char\bar{a}$, child, probably represents a third form of the same word. Compare $ka \cdot da \cdot b\bar{e}$ and $d\bar{e} \cdot n\bar{u}$, saying. Ai and \bar{e} are interchanged in $ma \cdot khai$ and $ma \cdot kh\bar{e}$, whatever. I seems to be written for \bar{e} in $wonich\bar{a}$, the-two-brothers-for. This compound seems to contain the words wo, elder brother, and $n\bar{e}$, younger brother. McCulloch gives o for wo.

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There are several instances of interchange between hard and soft consonants; thus, ha-rāu-bā-ka, to rejoice; nang-pa-kā, fell in want; kung-gi and kung-ki, from; dē and thē, to say, etc. R and l are interchangeable in $r\bar{u}p\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{u}p\bar{a}$, rupee, silver. B is perhaps written for w in a-thi \bar{u} -b \bar{a} , be; compare a-sh \bar{u} - $v\bar{a}$, see, etc. Shi and thi are both used in the meaning 'field.' M and n are sometimes interchanged; thus, $chon-th\bar{u}-n\bar{u}$ and wang-chom-nu, having gone; ēm and in, house. The form ēm, house, seems to be due to the influence of Meithei. There is also some uncertainty in the writing of aspirated letters. For instance, in the suffix rang and rhang both are used in exactly the same way; thus, ni ka-nā fa-rang mēm, me with to-be-had property, the property which I shall get; wā chā-rhang chē-wē, pigs-by to be-eaten husks, the husks which the pigs got to eat. Ng has apparently often a very faint sound, and is cccasionally dropped; thus, wang, wan, and wa, come; ang-ga and an-ka, was; a-nu, being; thiu-ga-ning and thiūng-ga-ni, I shall be, etc. It is often difficult to state which sound is meant when ω is written. Thus, we find $\omega a n \bar{e}$, and $\alpha - n \bar{e}$, the younger brother. These inconsistencies are perhaps partly due to inaccuracy, but it is also possible that the pronunciation is rather indistinct.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral $kh\bar{e}$, one, is often used as an indefinite article, while definiteness is marked by using relative clauses or demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Nouns denoting relationship and parts of the body are usually preceded by a possessive pronoun. Thus, $ka-n\bar{e}$, brother, lit. my brother; $ka-k\bar{u}$, hand, lit. my hand. The pronoun ma, his, seems to have a wider use. Thus, we find $ma-r\bar{u}p$ $ma-p\bar{a}ng$, my friends my companions, in the Parable. Ma is also used as a prefix in adjectives and nouns, just as in Meithei. Thus, ma-tam, time; $ma-tomb\bar{a}$, young, etc. The prefix a is also often used; thus, $a-n\bar{e}$ and $wa-n\bar{e}$, thy-younger brother; $a-p\bar{a}$, thy father; $a-b\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$, sound; $a-ch\bar{e}r\bar{a}$, young; a-mi-nai, slave; a-ni, day, etc. In one place we find ka used in a similar way, in $ka-p\bar{a}$ kong-ki $s\bar{e}l-li-n\bar{u}$ ka-mi-nai, my-father with-from wages-taking servants, my father's hired servants.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is often distinguished by means of different words. Thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; no, mother: $n\bar{e}$, brother; achalo, sister. In $s\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$, man; $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$, woman, we find the suffixes $p\bar{a}$, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female, well known from most Kuki-Chin languages. $S\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$ are also used in order to distinguish the gender of human beings. Thus, $s\bar{e}n-p\bar{a}$ charā, son, boy; $s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$ charā, daughter, girl. The gender of animals is denoted by adding patal, male, and $an\bar{u}$ or $n\bar{u}$, female; thus, sakol patal, a horse; sakol $an\bar{u}$, a cow: wi patal, a dog; wi $n\bar{u}$, a bitch.

Number.—The usual suffix of the plural is hing; thus, mi-nai hing, servants. Other words meaning 'many', 'all', etc., can also be used in the same way; thus, $k\bar{e}l$ $nh\bar{i}m-k\bar{a}$, goat many, goats.

Case.—There is apparently no suffix denoting the agent. The suffix to is sometimes added to the subject as well as to the object. Thus, a-mā-to ma-pā kūng-hā pa-thang-nū, he his father to answered; ma-pā ma charā-to panhēn-nū, his father his son entreated. Compare the corresponding suffix ta in Pūrūm. The Genitive is sometimes denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus a-pā in-thūng, thy (?) father's house-in; sakol hai-bē kūm, horse this year, the years of this horse. But more generally the suffix gi or ki, from, which is common in Meithei, is added. Thus, a-mā khū-gi tūkal, that village of a shopkeeper, a shopkeeper of the village. Sometimes a demonstrative

pronoun is also prefixed to the governing noun. Thus, mi $kh\bar{e}$ -gi ma- $char\bar{a}$, man one-of his-sons; $m\bar{e}m$ -gi ma-khai, property of whatever. The suffix ki or gi seems also to mean 'from'; thus, a-si-ni-ki, this-day-from. The Vocative is generally expressed without adding any prefix or suffix. Thus, ka- $p\bar{a}$, my father. But we also find the suffix or interjection o added; thus, ka- $char\bar{a}$ -o, my son. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:— $h\bar{a}$, to, in; ka- $d\bar{u}$ - $h\bar{a}$, before (me); ka-thal- $h\bar{a}$, behind (me); $k\bar{u}ng$, to; $k\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$, towards, to; $l\bar{e}$, in; $h\bar{e}ni$, under; $th\bar{u}ng$, in; $th\bar{u}ng$ -gi, from; $v\bar{a}$, with, by means of, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes precede and sometimes follow the word they qualify; thus, i-thā sēn-pā khē, good man one; kēl achērā, goat young; ma-charā ma-rhēm, his son the elder. The ordinary verbal suffixes are often added; thus, $b\bar{u}$ tha-tang-nū, cloth best being, the best cloth: ama-nhi chā-kē amā-hi tha-kā, these-two among-from he good-is, better. The word ma-tom-ba, younger, is perhaps borrowed from Meithei a-tom- $b\bar{a}$. The suffix $h\bar{a}$ seems to form adverbs of place or time; thus, $h\bar{u}l\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$, near; hai-so-hā and han-so-hā, far off, at a distance; but hai-so-wā-kā, far. The suffix mā seems to be used in a similar way; thus ma-lang-mā, wickedly; ido-mā, very; in-tē-tē-mā, always. I cannot properly analyse the clauses illustrating the use of the Comparative and the Superlative. In ama-nhi chākē amā-hi sāng-gā, higher, chā-kē seems to contain the postposition $k\bar{e}$, for ki, from. $Ch\bar{a}$ seems to mean 'among,' 'between'; compare wo-ni-chā, between the two brothers. The whole clause, therefore, perhaps means 'them-two from-among he tall-is'. In a-mā chal hēlē wa-nē amān-chēlē sāng-kā, his younger-sister than his-younger-brother taller, I cannot analyse the words $h\bar{e}l\bar{e}$ and amān-chēlē. In the superlative we find bū tha-tang-nū, the best cloth, lit. probably 'cloth good-very-being'; hūyā-pāng kālhi sāng-gā, highest, lit. probably 'those-many among high.' The word kālhi does not, however, occur in other places so that its meaning is uncertain.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. McCulloch gives aya-khet instead of $ay\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{e}$, one hundred, and lising khet thousand. From these forms we infer that the numeral $kh\bar{e}$, one, is derived from khet. There are no instances of the use of $\bar{a}to$, one.

Pronouns.—The following are the *Personal pronouns*:—Singular,—

ni, I. nang, thou. $a-m\bar{a}$, he. ni, ka, my. nang, na, thy. $a-m\bar{a}$, a, his. ni, ka, mine. nang, thine.

Plural,-

ni-hing, we. nang-hing, you. a-mā-hing, they.

Several suffixes seem to be added in order to emphasise. Thus, $ni-b\bar{e}$, I; $nang-b\bar{e}$, thou; $ma-d\bar{a}$, he; ni-hing-to, we; $am\bar{a}-hi$ and $am\bar{a}-h\bar{e}$, he, etc. The list of words furnishes forms such as ni $ka-p\bar{e}$, of me. The literal translation is probably 'my word.' McCulloch gives the forms ni-ga, mine; nang-ga, thine; $am\bar{a}-ga$, his; $ni-r\bar{u}$, we; $nang-r\bar{u}$, you; $ma-r\bar{u}$, they. $Ni-r\bar{u}$ seems to mean 'me-with' in the parable; thus, $nang-b\bar{e}$ $ni-r\bar{u}$ $amh\bar{a}-y\bar{a}-s\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$, thou me-with together-art. The pronoun of the third person consists of two elements, a and $m\bar{a}$. Both can be used alone; thus, $a-n\bar{e}$, his-brother; $ma-p\bar{a}$, his father. It has already been stated that the use of the prefixes a and ma, which

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are probably identical with these pronominal stems, is a rather wide one, a for instance being used instead of na, thy.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Hai, $h\bar{e}$, and hi, this; $h\bar{u}$, that; $t\bar{u}$, that. Most of these forms are inferred from other words such as hi- $y\bar{a}$ -bang, so many; $h\bar{u}$ - $y\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$, thosemany; a- $m\bar{a}$ -hi, he; $t\bar{u}$ - $h\bar{a}$, that-in, then, etc. The word $b\bar{e}$, which occurs in forms such as ni- $b\bar{e}$, I; hai- $b\bar{e}$, this, etc., is perhaps also originally a demonstrative pronoun. It is still such in Bodo. The pronoun a- $m\bar{a}$, he, also occurs in the sense 'that.' $H\bar{e}$ generally means 'this,' but occasionally also 'that.' It is probably identical with hai and hi. $T\bar{u}$ seems to correspond to Meithei adu, and the Meithei pronoun asi, this, also occurs in the parable; thus, asi-ni, this-day, to-day.

There are no Relative pronouns. The common suffix of the relative participle is apparently $n\bar{u}$; thus, $lip\bar{a}$ $h\bar{e}$ $k\bar{u}ng$ $a-n\bar{u}$ mi $kh\bar{e}$, country that in living man one; $s\bar{e}l$ -li- $n\bar{u}$ ka-mi-nai, wages-getting servants. Another suffix $m\bar{a}$ seems to occur in $y\bar{a}o$ $sh\bar{e}l$ - $m\bar{a}$ mi, a shepherd. A suffix rang or rhang is also used to form relative sentences; thus, ni ka- $n\bar{a}$ fa-rang $m\bar{e}m$, me with to be-got property, the property which I shall get; $w\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}$ -rhang $ch\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{e}$, pigs-by to-be-eaten husks. Rang seems to correspond to the postposition rang, for, in Hallām and other languages, where it is also used to form the future and an infinitive of purpose. 'All that I have is thine' is rendered ni $kan\bar{a}$ tho-ki-ma- $kh\bar{e}$ nang $thimp\bar{a}$. Tho-ki seems to be the genitive of tho, i. e. $thi\bar{u}$, to be, and $thimp\bar{a}$ probably mean 'property.' The whole sentence, therefore, must apparently word for word be translated as follows:—me-with being-of all thy property. Compare $m\bar{e}m$ -gi ma-khai, property-of everything, all his property.

The following Interrogative pronouns occur:— $a-k\bar{u}$ or $a-k\bar{u}-ti$, who ? $d\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$ or $d\bar{a}-b\bar{a}$, what ? $d\bar{a}-wa-wa-di$, why ? $y\bar{a}-th\bar{u}-ch\bar{a}$, how many ? $a-y\bar{a}ng-k\bar{a}$, how many are ?

The Indefinite pronoun a- $k\bar{u}$ -rāmhēn, any-one, is derived from the interrogative a- $k\bar{u}$, who?

Verbs.—Ka is often prefixed to various forms of the verbs; thus, ka- $p\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{a}$, give; ka- $p\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, gavest-not; ka-da- $b\bar{e}$, saying. I cannot see what meaning this prefix has. The list of words is so arranged that it seems as if there were a regular conjugation with different forms for the three persons. But a closer examination of the forms shows that there is no such conjugation. On the other hand, there are some traces of the use of pronominal prefixes in order to distinguish the person of the subject. Thus we find ni ka-bon-wal, I strike; nang \bar{u} - $ch\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{a}$, thou goest; a- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{u}$, he came; ma- $y\bar{e}l$ - $b\bar{e}$ -wal, he divided-gave. The prefix a seems also to be used in the second person indicative and imperative. Thus, nang a-bon-wal, thou strikest; a- $sh\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}$, see, etc. In most instances, however, no prefix is used.

There is apparently no essential difference between present and past times. Some suffixes, however, seem to be regularly used to convey the meaning of the past. Sometimes no suffix is added; thus, $a\text{-}m\bar{a}$ wa-chā, he goes; $a\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}hing$ wa-chā, they go; $k\bar{e}l$ a-chē-rā $kh\bar{e}$ -rā ka-pē-mā, goat young one-even given-was-not. A reduplication seems to occur in $a\text{-}m\bar{a}\text{-}hing$ chi-chē, they go. In the second specimen the suffix \bar{e} is generally added; thus, $r\bar{a}l$ - \bar{e} , enemy-is, there are enemies; ka-thā-yē, it is good; $l\bar{u}$ $l\bar{a}m$ - \bar{e} , head is taken. The commonest suffixes in the parable are $k\bar{a}$ or $g\bar{a}$, and $n\bar{u}$. $K\bar{a}$ seems to be used indifferently to denote the present and past times; thus, $am\bar{a}$ $thi\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{a}$, he is; ma-charā a-nhi ang- $g\bar{a}$, children two were; nang-pa- $k\bar{a}$, he became wretched. $K\bar{e}$ seems to be

identical with $k\bar{a}$ in a- $m\bar{a}$ -hing $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $k\bar{e}$, they rejoiced. It probably contains the suffix \bar{e} . According to the list ni may be added to $k\bar{a}$; thus, ni thi \bar{u} -ga-ni, I am; ni chi-ka-ni, I go. This form occurs as a future in the parable.

The suffix $n\bar{u}$ seems to have a wider use. We have found it added in order to form relative participles, and we will find it hereafter as a suffix of the verbal noun. But generally it seems to be used in forming the historic tenses of the verb. Thus, ni $ch\bar{e}$ -nu, I went; $l\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$, I disobeyed not; scm- $n\bar{u}$, he asked; thi- $n\bar{u}$, he said. In ni- $b\bar{e}$ thi- \bar{e} - $n\bar{u}$, I am dying, it seems to be added to the suffix \bar{e} . It is also added to several other suffixes. Thus, $th\bar{e}$ -cha- $n\bar{u}$, he said; $kh\bar{a}ng$ -cha-ka- $n\bar{u}$, thou hast given; ni-hing chi- $h\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$, we went; nang ki-ta- $n\bar{u}$, thou struckest; pa- $m\bar{a}$ -ta- $n\bar{u}$, he wasted; a- $m\bar{a}$ chi- $y\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$, he went. $H\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ and $y\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$ are probably identical with \bar{e} - $n\bar{u}$; see above. Ta- $n\bar{u}$ or $t\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$ seems to contain a suffix $t\bar{a}$, probably identical with $t\bar{a}$ in Lushēi and many other connected languages where it is used as a suffix of the past. Cha- $n\bar{u}$ probably contains some independent verb. $Ch\bar{a}$, to go, occurs in the list of words.

The suffix $t\bar{a}$ just mentioned seems to be connected with another suffix, ti or thi which seems to be used in the past tense. Thus, ni-hing $k\bar{e}$ -ti, we struck; $kamh\bar{a}$ -thi, I sinned; ka bon-thi, I have struck; nang-hing $w\bar{a}$ -cha-ti, you went. Compare hang-thi $n\bar{u}$ having arisen; and perhaps chon $th\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$, having gone, etc. The list of words furnishes nang $thi\bar{u}$ -ga-ti, thou art.

 $T\bar{a}$ seems also to be connected with $d\bar{a}$ or $d\bar{e}n$ - $d\bar{a}$ in ni thiunda, I was; nang- $b\bar{e}$ thiundanda, thou wast.

A suffix $w\bar{a}$, perhaps related to Meithei $b\bar{a}$, occurs in ka-ma-ti-ma- $w\bar{a}$, I-worthy-not-am; $nang\ \bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{e}$ - $w\bar{a}$, thou goest.

The suffix wal seems to convey the idea of past time. Thus, ni kē-wal, I struck; ka-thē-wal, he said; ma-yēl-bē-wal, he divided-gave.

Present definite.—The root alone, without any suffix, seems to be used as a present definite. Thus, $ni \ k\bar{e}$, I am striking. Other forms of the same tense are $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, they are eating; ma- $ch\bar{a}$ -mang, he is giving (a feast); ma- $p\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}n$ -mang, he is grazing.

Perfect.—The form ni cha-lē, I have walked, is perhaps Meithei.

The suffix of the Future seems to be ni or ning, to which ga or fo may be prefixed. Thus, ni thūng-ga-ni or ni thiū-ga-ning, I shall be; thē-ka-ni, I will say; ni a-būm-fo-ni, I will strike.

The root alone, without any suffix, but generally with a prefix, seems to be used as an Imperative. Thus, i-chē, go; ka-pē, give. The root is apparently reduplicated in cha-chā, go, walk. A suffix o occurs in the second specimen and in several of the verbs in McCulloch's list; thus, khūng-bi pāng-ō, war-song raise; kā-di-yo, be strong. In other instances we find a suffix ā, generally preceded by a consonant, b, w, or m. Thus, tūng-ā, bind; i-bon-bā, strike; wang-wā, walk; ali-wā, take; a-bu-mā, strike. The forms thakā, die, and ka-chā-mang, eat, look like finite tenses. The suffix of the first person is sē or sik; thus, wa-sē (McCulloch), let us go; an-yā-sikā, let us all be. McCulloch furnishes the form wa me othī, do not go. Wa-me is perhaps a negative participle; compare tha-mi, good-not-being, bad. Othī is perhaps the imperative of thiū, to be; thus, wa-me o-thī, going-not be.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun. Thus $l\bar{u}$ - $l\bar{a}m$, head-taking; ni ithi \bar{u} pangam, I be can, I may be; ni ka- $n\bar{a}$ tho-ki ma- $kh\bar{e}$, me with being-of all, all that I have; $w\bar{a}n$ -th $\bar{u}ng$, remaining-in, when he remained. I have already

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mentioned that the forms fa-rang, to-be-got, and $ch\bar{a}$ -rhang, to be-eaten, perhaps contain this verbal noun plus a postposition rang or rhang, for. It seems probable that we have to explain the forms ka-da- $b\bar{e}$, on saying, and ka- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$, on coming, in the same way. Thus, in- $th\bar{u}ng$ $h\bar{a}$ a- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $rh\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}$ ka-da- $b\bar{e}$ rho-ma- $n\bar{u}$, house-into enter on-saying herefused, when (the servant) said 'enter' he refused; na- $char\bar{a}$ $h\bar{e}$ ka- $w\bar{a}ng$ - $b\bar{e}$, thy son this coming-on, when this thy son came. A verbal noun is also formed by adding the suffixes $n\bar{u}$ and $b\bar{a}$. Thus, a- $b\bar{e}$ - $n\bar{u}$, sound; a- $d\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, dancing; $p\bar{u}ng$ -yai- $b\bar{a}$, drum-beating. The root alone is also used as an Infinitive of purpose; thus, $w\bar{a}$ rhong, pigs to-tend, in order to-tend pigs. The suffix $n\bar{u}$ seems also to be used; thus, ma- $p\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{a}$ $ch\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{a}$ -hang- $n\bar{u}$, my-companions-with in-happiness feasting-for, in order to make merry with my friends. The forms $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $b\bar{a}ka$ $har\bar{a}u$ - $b\bar{a}ka$, to make merry and be glad (is proper), are apparently Meithei. The forms $ithi\bar{u}$ -na- $r\bar{a}$, to be; ibon-na- $r\bar{a}$, to strike, are probably infinitives of purpose; i- $thi\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{a}$ ka-ma-ti-ma- $w\bar{a}$, to-be (thy son) I-worthy-notam, is perhaps identical with the Meithei future in $g\bar{e}$.

Participles.—The Relative participle has been mentioned under Relative pronouns. An Adverbial participle may be formed by adding the suffix $n\bar{a}$, as in Meithei. Thus, ni-kam- $n\bar{a}$, in plenty; $n\bar{u}ng\bar{a}i$ - $n\bar{a}$, happily. Compare the form $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, they are eating. Another suffix of this participle seems to be $m\bar{a}$; thus, ma-lang- $m\bar{a}$, wickedly. $N\bar{a}$ seems also to be used in order to form a Conjunctive participle; thus, $am\bar{a}$ - $h\bar{e}$ $kan\bar{a}$ $b\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ $sh\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}$ $t\bar{u}ng$ - \bar{a} , him well beating ropes-with bind. $D\bar{e}$ may be added to $n\bar{a}$; thus, ka- $b\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{e}$, striking, having struck. It is, however, possible that n belongs to the root, in which case the suffix would be \bar{a} . The suffix $n\bar{u}$ is the most common in forming this participle. Thus, ma- $p\bar{a}$ chom- $n\bar{u}$ ma- $d\bar{a}$ -to pa-yo- $n\bar{u}$, his-father running him kissed; ma- $d\bar{a}$ hang-thi- $n\bar{u}$ ma- $p\bar{a}$ $k\bar{u}ng$ a- $v\bar{a}ng$ - $n\bar{u}$, he arising his-father to he-went; ma- $p\bar{a}$ a- $v\bar{a}ng$ - $th\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$ ma- $char\bar{a}$ -to pa- $nh\bar{e}n$ - $n\bar{u}$, his-father having-come-out his-son entreated. This form is, as already stated, also used to denote the finite tenses, or, in other words, the sentences are simply put together, without any connecting participle.

There is no Passive voice. Thus, ni-do mi ki- $n\bar{u}$, I am struck, seems to mean 'me man strikes.' I cannot satisfactorily explain the form ni-do mi-kai-ko-thi-ma, I shall be struck. In the parable we find forms such as $d\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{u}$, he has been found; $f\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, he has been recovered.

Compound verbs are freely formed. Thus, yēl; divide; pē, give; yēl-bē, divide-give, allot: wāng, walk; chom, go; wāng-chom, go: wāng, walk; rhū, enter; wāng-rhū, go in. The prefix hā seems to denote motion towards; thus, ni-bē ka-pā kūng hā-wā-ni, I my-father to go-will. The prefix pa has apparently a transitive force. Thus, pa-thang-nū, answered; pa-mā-tā-nū, wasted; pa-sol-nū, was lost; pa-yo-nū, kissed. There are apparently several verbs yo. Compare the sentence wā chā-rhang chē-wē yo-nā pa-yo-nū pigs food husks even although-he-wished-to-eat. Yo-na perhaps corresponds to Meithei yām-nā, much, and pa-yō-nū may mean 'wanted.' Thus, yo-nā pa-yo-nū, he wanted much. A causative prefix ma seems to occur in forms such as ma-pūm-hā-wal, he wasted; ma-shi-wal, he sent; ma-chā-māng, he is giving a feast.

The Negative particle is $m\bar{a}$, or, in adjectives, mi. Thus, $ka-p\bar{e}-m\bar{a}-n\bar{u}$, gave not; $ikopi-n\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$ $n\bar{u}$, ill was not; tha-mi, good-not, bad. In one instance we find the Meithei negative $d\bar{e}$: thus, $l\bar{e}-d\bar{e}-n\bar{u}$, disobeyed not.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes, but generally follows, the direct one.

[No. 32.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ANĀL

SPECIMEN I.

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

Mi ma-charā anhi ang-gā. Anhiki manung ma-charā ma-tom-bā Man a-certain-of his-sons two Two-of from-amongst his-son were. ma-pā kūng ka-thē-wal, 'ka-pā, nang asi-ni-ki makhai ni kanā fa-rang his-father 'my-father, you to-day-from whatever me with to-be-had to said, hē ka-pē-wā. Ма-ра woni-chā mēm ma-yēl-bē-wal. His-father the-two-brothers-for wealth give. wealth that divided. Days chirem hāthē ma-charā ma-tom-bā mēm-gi-ma-khai honnū hai-so-hā a-few remaining his-son younger wealth-of-as-much-as carrying farkhē-hā chon-thū-nū ma-lang-mā ma-mēm-ki-ma-khai ma-pūm-hā-wal. country a-to having-gone wickedly his-wealth-of-as-much-as wasted. Mēm-ki-ma-khai pūma-thū-nū ma-chonā-hā bū ido-mā Wealth-of-as-much-as having-been-wasted that-place-in ricevery tāng-lam-nū. Ma-dā nang-pakā. Ma-dā lipā $h\bar{e}$ kūng a-nū mi dear-became. Hewretched-became. He country that living inman khē kūng wāng-chom-nū ambāi-nū. Mi a-mā-to wā rhong shi-hā ahaving-gone joined-together. Manthat swine to-pasture field-to Wā ma-shi-wal. chā-rhang chēwē yonā payonū sent (-him). Swine-(by) to-be-eaten husks even although-wished-to-eat akū-rāmhēn ka-pē-mā-nū. Tū-thāl tē-sing-nū ma-dā manumrā thē-cha-nū, any-one gave-not. Afterwards sense-having-come heto-himself said, 'ka-pā-kong-ki sēl-li-nū ka-mi-nai nikam-nā chā-nā-nū: ni-bē ka-poi 'my-father's money-taking servants in-plenty are-eating; Ibelly tham thie-nū. Ni-bē ka-pā kūng hā-wā-ni thē-ka-ni, being-hungry am-nearly-dying. \boldsymbol{I} my-father towill-say, "my-father, going ni-bē Lē kūng-hā ka-mhā-thi, nang kung-ha khē pa-mhā-nū, ni-bē Godhave-done-wrong, youto also have-done-wrong, I nang charā ithiū-kā ka-ma-ti-ma-wā; ni-bē a-mi-nai khē thiū-ga-ning."' Ma-dā your to-be worthy-am-not; ľ servant one will-be." Не hang-thi-nū ma-pā kūng a-wang-nu. Han-so-hā wan-thung ma-pā getting-up his-father tocame. At-distance coming-in his father thi-nü, woam-sā-nū, chom-nū, ma-dā-to pa-yo-nū. Ma-charā .. ma-pā seeing, being-compassionate, running, him his-father kissed. His-son

ka-mhā-thi nang kūng-hā Lē kūng-hā ' ka-pā ni-bē kung ka-the-wal, have-done-wrong, you to Godto'my-father Ι to said. charā ithiū-kā ka-ma-ti-ma-wā.' Tū-hā ma-pā khē pa-mhā-nū, nang worthy-am-not.' Thereupon his-father sonto-be also have-done-wrong, your tha-tang-nū a-hol-nū ka-charā bū. ma-thē-wal, mi-nai hing kūng-hā 'garments best bringing my-80% said, servants to many khē abnā-wā, ma-khū-hā khongūp abnā-wā. kūpāl a-pa-hēl-wā; ma-kū-hā put. put, his-feet-on shoes let-wear; his-hand-on ring a a-yēl-nū; dū-nū; athā pa-sol-nū, A-charā hē thi-nū, he-was-found; he-was-lost, My-son this had-died, again came-alive; ne-nū nūngi-nā anyā-sik-ā.' A-mā-to dē-nū a-mā-hing nūngai-kē ni-hing chā-nū eating drinking merrily let-us-remain.' rejoiced. This saying ma-in-hā tung ma-chara ma-rhem thi-le. Ma-dā ang-kā. Ma-tam his-house-towards HeTime that-at his-son elder field-in was. a-wāng-nū pūng yai-bā a-bē-nū a-dā-nū wā-nā-tā-nū. Ma-dā mi-nai khē on-nū, Heservant · a drum beating sound dancing heard. 'ma-na-to-hing dā-bā?' kūng mi-nai $h\bar{e}$ mi-nai som-nū. Tū-hā Thereupon 'things-these what-are?' servant asked. servant that ikopi-nā-ma-nū a-wäng-nű ma-charā pa-thang-nu, 'wa-nē a-wang-nu; his-son having-come has-come; ill-not-being 'brother replied, ma-dā ma-long-thi-nū in-thung-ha pāntrā ma-chā-mang.' Tū-hā na-pā he getting-angry house-into is-giving.' Thereupon feast your-father a-wāng-thū-nū ma-charā-to pa-nhēn-nū. a-wāng-rhū-wā ka-da-bē rho-ma-nū. Ma-pā on-saying refused. His-father having-come-out his-son A-mā-to ma-pā kūng-hā pa-thang-nū, 'a-shū-wā, kūm hiyā-bang hē ni-bē ka-pā He his-father 'behold, years so-many these. I my-father answered, toni lē-dē-nū; to-nū tokhi-rā ka-pā nang a-pē nang a-sipā did-not-disobey; in-doing even-once my-father your wordsI your service nūngai-nā chā-hā-hang-nū kēl a-chērā tū-lhān-tūng ma-päng-hā ma-rūp goat young nevertheless my-friends companions-with in-happiness to-eat sē-nū kūng-hā pē-ta-nū khē-rā ka-pē-mā. Nang a-mēm som-bang one-even has-not-been-given. Your substance all-that giving woman Tū-hā pa-mā-ta-nū na-charā hē ka-wāng-bē nang pāntrā khāng-chaka-nū.' Thereupon have-given. who-wasted. your-son this on-coming. you feast in-tē-tē-mā amhāyā-sē-nū; ma-pā ka-thē-wal, 'ka-charā-o, nang-bē ni-rū at-all-times live-together: his-father said, my-child-O, me-with you ni kanā tho-ki-makhē nang thim-pa: a-nē hē thi-nū, a-thā with your-brother this had-died, againme whatever-is yours is: ni-hing-to nūngāi-bā-ka a-vēl-nū; pa-sol-nū, harāū-bā-ka fā-nū; he-came-alive; he-was-lost, he-was-found; merrily-to-remain gladly-to-remain we chūm-kā. it-is-proper.'

[No. 33.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

ANĀL.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

SONGS SUNG AT THE TIME OF WAR AND ON THE OCCASION OF KILLING A TIGER RESPECTIVELY.

Rālē rālē. kādivē. hēngūn rālē kādiyo. there-is-war, (the-enemy-)is-strong, There-is-war here is-war be-strong. Rālē rālē, kādiyē, hēngūn rālē. kādivo. There-is-war, there-is-war, the-enemy-is-strong, here be-strong. is-war, dēndūnū; Sēmbū-pāngtē Shā-rhāng-pāngtē ma-yēlbata bling-keng-kung. mhi Tiger Sēmbū 1 its-skin is-striped; wide-opened. eye Changhāl-pātē ma-yēlbata dēndūnū. bling-keng-kung. Sembū-pangte mhi Wild-cat its-skin is-striped. Sēmbū wide-opened. eyeLū-lāmē lū-lāmē. khūngbi lū-lāmē, lū-lām pāngo, tarang, Head-is-taken head-is-taken, war-song raise, head-is-taken, sing, head-taking pāngo, Lū-lāmē, ka-thāyē. Khungbi lū-lāmē. lū-lāmē good-is. War-song head-is-taken. Head-is-taken, head-is-taken, raise, khūngbi pāngo, lū-lāmē, tarang, lū-lām ka-thāyē, khūngbi pāngo, war-song raise, head-is-taken, sing, head-taking good-is, war-song lū-lāmē, tarang, lū-lām kathāvē. head-is-taken, sing, head-taking good-is.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

The war has broken out, the enemy is strong. He is here, be you strong. The tiger's skin is striped; the Sembu's eye is wide-open. The wild cat's skin is striped; the Sembu's eye is wide-open.

A head is taken, a head is taken, raise the war-song. A head is taken, sing a song. Good it is to take a head. Raise the war-song, for a head is taken, and so forth.

¹ A kind of bird having large eyes.

HIRŌI LAMGĀNG.

The Hirōi Lamgang dialect is spoken by a small tribe in Manipur. Their total number is estimated to lie between 500 and 1,000. We have no information regarding their villages in the hills, but they are found in the plains at Lamgang, in the southern part of the valley.

Mr. Damant mentions the Lumyang Kukis as a powerful and warlike tribe to the south of the Anāls. He states that they are gradually being driven north-wards by the Soktēs, and that they claim to be the oldest branch of the whole Kuki family. This tribe is probably identical with the Hirōi Lamgāng tribe.

AUTHORITY-

Damant, G. H.—Notes on the Locality and Population of the Tribes dwelling between the Brahmaputra and Ningthi Rivers. Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, New Series, Vol. xii, 1880, p. 228. Note on Lumyang Kuki on p. 239.

I have not come across any other authority dealing with this tribe.

Two specimens and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from Lamgang, all prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh. The list of words abounds in verbal forms, the exact meaning of which cannot be ascertained. There are also some doubtful points in the specimens. The remarks on Lamgang grammar which follow, and which are entirely based on these texts, must accordingly be used with caution.

Pronunciation.—The vowels of the prefixes seem to be indistinctly sounded. They are sometimes entirely dropped, and their colour is apparently influenced by the following vowel. Thus, we find: -ka-chēn-ā, run; ki-di-yā, die; kū-dūi, to find pleasure at; nai-k pāū-thē, of me, lit. I my (ka) word; pa-rai-dā, striking; a-prai, strike; ta-kū, nine; ti-ksi-yū, seven; tū-rūk, six, etc. Ka-lā and klā, far, and several other instances of the same kind can only be accounted for through the supposition that the a in ka has a very faint sound. We find a similar contraction in cases such as awā and āo, that; ha-wā, hau and $h\bar{a}o$, this. It is often difficult to decide whether a vowel is long or short. U is always marked as long, but this is the case in all texts prepared by Babu Bisharup Singh, and we can never know whether a u is really long or short. We often find the same word written sometimes with a long, and sometimes with a short, vowel. Thus, thang and thang, in; awā and āwa, that. The use of the short vowel seems to be due to the adding of an accentuated suffix in ta-ki, what-from? why? from ta, what? Ai is sometimes interchangeable with ē; thus, nai, I; nēmbē, with me; nang-ai, thou; nai-yē, I: Lāi, God; lē-ka-long, devil. In the same way au and o are sometimes interchanged; thus, alau, take; klo, taking. O and \bar{u} often seem to denote the same sound; thus, $k\bar{u}$ and ko, who? E and i are sometimes interchangeable; thus, pi and pē, give; hin-ki and hin-kē from, etc. The sound of final ng is apparently rather faint. Thus, we find wang, wan, and wā, to come; a-dū-thāng, behind; kū-dū-thā, behind me, etc. Hard and soft consonants are sometimes interchangeable. Thus, we occasionally find the common prefix ka written ga, etc. R is a common sound, but l is substituted, for it in $l\bar{u}p\bar{a}$, silver. We often find rr as final consonant; thus, thirr, iron; horr, bring, etc. The doubling of the r seems in some cases to be due to the elision of a following short vowel; thus, ka-ra- $w\bar{a}$, he comes ; karr- $b\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$, he has come. It will be seen that b is substituted for the initial w in $w\bar{a}ng$, $w\bar{a}$, to come, after this double r.

We have no information about accentuation and tones.

Prefixes and Suffixes.—There are in Lamgang, as in the Naga languages, many prefixes and suffixes, which have originally had a definite meaning of their own, but are now apparently used without adding anything to the meaning. Most of the suffixes, however, seem to be used as postpositions in the inflection of nouns and verbs, and will be mentioned below. The vowels of the prefixes are often, as already stated, of uncertain colour, partly assimilating themselves to the vowel of the following syllable. They are also sometimes dropped altogether so that only the initial consonant of the prefix remains. Thus, lam-klā, distant, seems to consist of two words, lam, way, and klā, far. Klā must be compared with lā or lhā, far, in connected languages and certainly contains a prefix ka; compare Kōm ka-lhā, far. The form klā apparently represents an intermediate stage between ka-lā and lhā. Compare Tibetan, where the prefixes are still written, but have long since ceased to be pronounced. The most usual prefixes in Lamgang will be mentioned in alphabetical arrangement. The a which will be given as their final vowel is, in many cases at least, an indistinct sound:

 \mathcal{A} .—The prefix a or \bar{a} is very often used before nouns. Thus, a- $kh\bar{u}t$, hand; a-poi, belly; a-ka-nā, ear. It is often prefixed to the governing noun after the genitive of a personal pronoun. Thus, nai a-kāng-rūp, my companions; nang a-chā-pā, thy son, etc. It is sometimes translated 'thy.' Thus, a-hin-rūko, thy-presence-in-also. It also occurs before verbs, especially in the imperative; thus, $a-j\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$, he heard; $a-r\bar{u}ng$, pasture; a-son, listen. In a-rango, formerly, it is apparently prefixed to an adverb. We sometimes find arr instead of a, thus arrbang-da, came; arrpom-da, embraced. This arr is perhaps a contraction of two suffixes a and ra. Compare ka-ra-wā, comes. In i-sāng, high, the prefix i seems to be identical with a. The original meaning of the prefix a cannot be In some places it may be compared with the Burmese prefix a which forms nouns from verbal roots; thus $a-k\bar{a}$, the side of a building, from $k\bar{a}$, to cover on the side. But it is also possible to compare the possessive pronoun or, more correctly, pronominal prefix a, his, which is used in most Kuki-Chin and Nāgā languages. It must then be supposed to have lost the special meaning of a pronoun of the third person and to have become merely a definite article. We find a corresponding phenomenon in Rangkhol where \bar{a} seems gradually to supersede the pronominal prefixes of the first and second persons in the conjugation of verbs.

Ka.—The prefix ka is often a pronominal prefix of the first person. Thus, ka-pā, my father; nai ka-hin-thā, I my-presence-in, to me; nai-k pāūthē, i.e. nai ka-pāūthē, of me, lit. I my word. This meaning is probably, in many cases, the original one. But the use of this prefix is so wide that we must probably infer that more than one word are the origin of it. Thus ka-poi, belly; ka-tham, hunger; ki-ni, sun; ko-mo, child; ka-thā, good; ka-sāng, high; ka-lā and klā, far; klō, taking, receiving; ki-ni, two; ka-dūm, three; ka-māng-thok, he was lost; ka-tik-mē, I am unworthy; ka-am, was, etc. This prefix is occasionally also written ga; thus, ga-dūm (drum-)beating; ga-mā, without. The prefix karr seems to contain ka and another prefix ra. Thus, karr-bāng-ā, he has come; karr-dām-dā, dancing. In the Nāgā languages ka or ke and in Bodo ga, are the regular adjectival prefixes. Compare Introduction, p. 15.

Ma.—The prefix ma is often the possessive pronoun of the third person. Thus, ma- $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, his son. It is, however, used in many words where such a meaning can no more

be found. Thus, ma-sa- $v\bar{a}i$, husks; ma-don, branch; ma-shon, young; ma- $p\bar{u}m$, all; ma- $h\bar{a}n$, up; ma- $th\bar{e}$ -ni, I will say; ma-pi- $m\bar{e}$, thou gavest not; ma-to- $l\bar{a}n$, doing, etc. In marr-van- $n\bar{a}$, coming; marr- $av\bar{a}n$ - $th\bar{u}ng$ - $t\bar{a}$, when he came, ma seems to be combined with another prefix ra.

Na, which generally is the pronominal prefix of the second person, is used in a wider sense in $ma-n\bar{a}-ch\bar{a}$, his son, etc.

Pa.—A prefix pa occurs in words such as $pl\bar{u}ng$, mind; aplai, tongue; $pa-w\bar{a}$, bird; pilli, four; $pa-ra-ng\bar{a}$, five; $pa-then-d\bar{a}$, entreated; a-pa-hil, put on, etc. In $ka-koi-ka-parr-n\bar{a}-ga\ m\bar{a}$, illness-without, a prefix ra is apparently added after pa. The prefix po in $po-m\bar{a}ng$, to waste, seems to be different, and to impart a causative meaning to the verb. It is connected with the Mikir pi and the Bodo fi, Tibetan b.

Ra.—A prefix ra has been mentioned above as added to the prefixes a, ka, ma, and pa. It is perhaps connected with the prefix ro in nai ka-ro-prai ma-ro- $w\bar{a}$, I may be. I do not, however, understand this form.

Sa—seems to be a prefix in words such as sa-chāi, stripes; ma-sa-wāi, husks, etc. In sa-kol, horse, etc., it is no prefix, but means 'animal.'

Ta.—A prefix ta occurs in a few words. Thus, $t\bar{u}$ - $r\bar{u}k$, six; $tiksiy\bar{u}$, seven; ti- $r\bar{e}t$, eight; ta- $k\bar{u}$, nine; ta-am, to be; ta-prai-na- $r\bar{a}$, to strike; ta- $f\bar{a}k$, till.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *khat*, one, may be used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is indicated by the use of relative clauses, prefixes, and demonstrative pronouns.

Nouns.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is distinguished, in the case of human beings, by the use of different words. Thus, a- $p\bar{a}$, father; a- $n\bar{u}$, mother: a- $n\bar{a}o$, brother; a-charr, sister. Or the suffixes $p\bar{a}$, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female, are added. Thus, a- $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, child male, son; a- $ch\bar{a}$ - $n\bar{u}$, child female, daughter. The same suffixes are also used in order to distinguish the gender of animals. Thus, sa-kol- $p\bar{a}$, a horse; sa-kol- $n\bar{u}$, a mare.

Number.—There are two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to mark the plural, some word meaning 'many,' 'all,' etc., is added. Thus, a-pā ka-nēm-kat, father many, fathers; a-pā ka-nēm hin-ki, father many presence from, from fathers; pa-sēl-pā ka-thā-rēt, man good-many, good men; ma-sarāwor-rēt, servants, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not, as a rule, take any suffix. An \bar{a} is sometimes added to the nominative. Thus, sa-kol $ka\text{-}nga\bar{u}\text{-}ki$ $s\bar{a}pal\text{-}\bar{a}$ $in\text{-}th\bar{u}ng\text{-}h\bar{a}$ ka-am, horse white-of saddle house-place-in is, in the house is the saddle of the white horse. This \bar{a} is probably identical with the \bar{a} which is added to the personal pronouns, where it also takes the forms ai and \bar{e} . It is probably originally a demonstrative pronoun. The suffix $n\bar{a}$, denoting the agent, is once, in the second specimen, added to the subject of a transitive verb. Thus, $sang\bar{a}r\text{-}n\bar{a}$ $kh\bar{e}l\text{-}d\bar{a}$, the wild cat asked. $N\bar{a}$ is once added to the subject of $w\bar{a}\text{-}d\bar{a}$, went; thus, $sang\bar{a}r\text{-}n\bar{a}$ $w\bar{a}\text{-}d\bar{a}$, the wild cat havinggone, lit. wild-cat-that going-was. This latter $n\bar{a}$ is perhaps a demonstrative pronoun. Another suffix of the agent, corresponding to in in Lushēi and connected languages, perhaps occurs in forms such as $ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$ $ma\text{-}p\bar{a}$ $hiniy\bar{a}$ $th\bar{e}\text{-}d\bar{a}$, the-son his-father to said. The ng in $ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$ is perhaps the suffix ing or in. Other instances are: $ma\text{-}p\bar{a}ng$ $dai\text{-}d\bar{a}$, his-father saw (him); $ma\text{-}m\bar{a}ng$ $\bar{a}\text{-}ra\bar{u}$ $ma\text{-}p\bar{u}m$ $po\text{-}m\bar{a}ng\text{-}d\bar{a}$, he his-property all

having-wasted, etc. It is, however, also possible that this ng only marks a slight nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel.

The Genitive is often expressed by putting the governed before the governing word, without any suffix. Thus, a- $p\bar{a}$ in- $th\bar{a}$, thy-father's house-in. In $r\bar{u}$ ma-don- $th\bar{a}$, tree its-branch-on, on the branch of the tree, the possessive pronoun ma, its, seems to denote the genitive. The suffix ki, from, is often added to the governed word; thus, sa-kol ka- $nga\bar{u}$ -ki $s\bar{a}pal$ - \bar{a} , horse white-of saddle. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are: \bar{a} , with, by means of; a- $d\bar{u}$ - $th\bar{a}ng$, before; a-di- $th\bar{a}$, behind; hin, with; $hiniy\bar{a}$, to; hin-ki or hin- $k\bar{e}$, from; hin- $th\bar{a}$, to; i, \bar{e} , and ing, in, at, to; ki, from; $l\bar{e}n$ and $l\bar{e}ng$ - $th\bar{a}$, on; $mb\bar{e}$, with; ngin, for; $th\bar{a}$, in, to; thang, towards, to; $th\bar{u}$ and $th\bar{u}ng$, in, on, with; $th\bar{u}ng$ -ki and $th\bar{u}ng$ -ti, from. Many of these postpositions are probably individual nouns. Thus, $th\bar{u}ng$ occurs in the sense 'village' in sentence No. 241, and it probably means 'place.' But in most cases we do not know these words otherwise than as postpositions.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow, but occasionally also precede the noun they qualify. Thus, $ma\text{-}ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}$ thom- $p\bar{u}$ and thom- $p\bar{u}$ ch\bar{a}\text{-}p\bar{a}ng, the younger son. The suffix $p\bar{u}$ in thom- $p\bar{u}$ is probably a suffix of the relative participle. In other cases the ordinary verbal suffixes are added; thus, $b\bar{u}$ tang- $d\bar{a}$, food became dear. The comparative degree is sometimes only indicated by the position of the compared nouns; thus, $ma\text{-}charr\text{-}n\bar{u}$ $ma\text{-}n\bar{a}o$ $is\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} , his-sister his-brother tall-is, his brother is taller than his sister. The suffix $s\bar{e}t$ may be added in order to form comparatives and superlatives. Thus, khat $ka\text{-}s\bar{a}ng\text{-}s\bar{e}t$, one high-much, higher; $ma\text{-}m\bar{a}$ $ka\text{-}s\bar{a}ng\text{-}s\bar{e}t$, he high-much, highest. The superlative is formed by adding lang-lang in $ka\text{-}th\bar{a}\text{-}lang\text{-}lang$, best.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. There are no traces in the specimens of the use of generic prefixes or suffixes.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

Singular,—

nai, I.

nang, thou.

nai-ki, nai-a, ka, my.

nang-a, na, thy.

nain, we.

nain, we.

nain, we.

nair, indicate the second of the

A suffix ai, \bar{e} , or \bar{a} is often added in the nominative of the two first persons. Thus, $nai \cdot y\bar{e}$ and $nai \cdot y\bar{a}$, I; $nang \cdot ai$, and $nang \cdot \bar{a}$, thou. In the Genitive the short form ka is often added to the nominative of the first person. Thus, $naik \ p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$, that is $nai \ ka \cdot p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$, I my word, of me; $nai \ ka \cdot hin \cdot th\bar{a}$, I my-presence-in, to me. In the second person a or \bar{a} is added instead of na; thus, $nang \cdot \bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$, thy word, of thee; $nang \ a \cdot ch\bar{a} \cdot p\bar{a}$, thy son. $Nai \cdot ka \cdot ti$, mine, seems to mean 'I my property' or something like that. $Nang \cdot i \cdot hin$, thine, probably means 'thee-with.' Compare $nai \cdot ka \cdot hin \ ka \cdot am \cdot ki \cdot ma \cdot kia$, I-my-presence-in being-of-all, all that I have. The stem of the third person is ma; thus, $ma \cdot ki \cdot ni$, they-two. The plural is formed by adding n. In sentence No. 198 we find $nai \cdot ni$, we, and in No. 200 $ma \cdot m\bar{a} \cdot ni$, they, with a suffix ni, corresponding to the forms in $K\bar{o}m$, Hallām, and Langrong. The form nangin, you, seems to be derived from nangin, i.e. $nang\bar{e}$ and ni, In No. 160 we find $nangan \cdot j\bar{u}$, you, apparently derived

from $nang\bar{a}$, thou. The addition $j\bar{u}$ is probably an emphasising demonstrative pronoun. The forms nai-ki-ki, our, and nanga-na-ki, your, have no plural suffix. The final ki is the common genitive suffix, but the forms ki (i.e. ka), and na before ki seem to indicate that ki is treated as a noun.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Ha-wā or hāo, this; a-wā or ā-o, that. The simple stems of these pronouns are apparently ha or hā, and a or ā. Compare Kōm hi and hi-wa, this Another stem si, corresponding to Meithei asi, this, occurs in si-ni, this-day, to-day.

The word $j\bar{u}$ in nangan- $j\bar{u}$, you, is probably the same as Rāngkhōl $j\bar{u}$, that.

Relative pronouns.—There are no relative pronouns, their place being supplied by relative participles. The usual form of these participles is the root with the prefix ka without any suffix. Thus, laū kū-nūm mi, jhum cutting man, cultivator; yāo ka-sēl mi, a shepherd; nai ka-tūm ā-raū, I getting property, the property which I shall get; lai-pāk a-wā-thā ka-am mi khat, country that-in living man one. The suffix nā is added to the verb in wak ro-chāk-nā ma-sa-wāi a-wā, pigs eaten husks that, the husks which the pigs ate. The suffix pū in thom-pū chā-pāng, the younger son, is apparently also a suffix of the relative participle. In nanga-ki ā-raū ma-pūm ka-sū-bi hin-thā pi-dā po-mang-dā na-chā-pā ha-wā, thy property all harlots to giving wasting thy-son this, this thy son who wasted and gave away all thy property to harlots, the forms ending in dā may be considered as relative participles. The suffix dā is very common in the inflection of the verbs, and it generally denotes the past time.

Interrogative pronouns.—Kū and ko, who? tā, what? ta-ki, why? ta-yām, how

much? ta-yā, how many?

Indefinite pronouns.—The only indefinite pronoun which occurs in the specimens is $k\bar{u}$ -khat-son, any-one, composed of the interrogative pronoun $k\bar{u}$, the numeral khat, one, and the indefinite particle son.

Verbs.—The root alone, without any suffix, is often used to denote present and past times. Thus, nai ka-prai, I strike, I am striking; ka-am, he is; ka-ra-wā, he comes; ka-chūm, it is proper; a-rēn, thou boughtest; mamā ka-wā, he went. The commonest suffixes which are used in the same times are:—

 \bar{A} ; thus, $ch\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{a}$ ka-an- \bar{a} , (they) are eating; ka-di-rak-thi- $y\bar{a}$, I am about to die; ka-am- \bar{a} , they were; $k\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{u}i$ - $y\bar{a}$, he found (it) sweet. Some of these forms perhaps contain a suffix $y\bar{a}$, which belongs to the past tense. Thus, $naiy\bar{a}$ ka-prai- $y\bar{a}$, I struck.

Cha seems to convey the idea of past time. Thus, nungāi-chē, they made merry; thē-cha-dā, he said; pāp cho-cha-nū, sin I committed.

 $D\bar{a}$ is a very common suffix, and denotes the past. Thus, $b\bar{u}$ $t\bar{a}ng$ - $d\bar{a}$, rice dear became; ma- $p\bar{a}$ $hiniy\bar{a}$ $th\bar{e}$ - $d\bar{a}$, his father to (he) said; ka- $p\bar{a}$ komo a- $n\bar{a}$ - $ch\bar{a}$ ma-charr $la\bar{u}$ - $d\bar{a}$, my uncle's son his sister has-taken, the son of my uncle has married his sister.

 $K\bar{a}$ only occurs in one or two places. Thus, sa-kol $\bar{a}\text{-}k\bar{u}m$ $ta\text{-}y\bar{a}m$ $s\bar{u}\text{-}k\bar{a}$, (this) horse's years how-much amount? how old is this horse? and perhaps ha-li $lon\text{-}th\bar{a}$ $ma\text{-}m\bar{a}ng$ sil sa-jik $ma\text{-}p\bar{e}\text{-}g\bar{a}$, this-hill's top-on he cattle grass giving-is. The g in $ma\text{-}p\bar{e}g\bar{a}$, however, is perhaps the final consonant of the root, in which case the suffix would be \bar{a} .

Nū.—This suffix is apparently also added to the present as well as to the past tenses. Thus, nai ka-thok-nū, I am, I was; nai-yā chē-nū, I have walked; nai-yā pa-rai-nū, I have struck.

The list of words contains many other suffixes, so arranged as to give the idea that there is a regular conjugation. We have no instances of their use, and I can therefore only reproduce the forms given. These suffixes are:—

Aping, in nai ka-wā aping, I go, I went; nang ka-wā aping, thou wentest.

Ampin, in nain ka-wāng ampin, we go; nain ka-wā ampin, we went.

Ampati, in nang ka-wāng ampati, thou goest; nang-in ka-wā ampati, you went.

In, in nain ka-prai-in, we struck.

Lom, in ma-mān ka-wā-lom, they went.

Nā, in ma-mā ka-thok-nā, he is.

Ngan, in nang-an-jū ka-thok-ngan, you are.

Ngan-ti-nū, in nang-in ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū, you were.

Ni, in nang ka-thok-ni, thou art.

No and no-mā, in nang-in, ma-mān, a-prai-no, you, they, struck; ma-mān ka-wāng-no-mā, they go. No is probably identical with nū.

Paktē, in nang ka-thok-pak-tē, thou wast.

Riyaū, in nai ka-prai-riyaū, I had struck.

Most of these additions are certainly separate words with a meaning of their own. This is also the case with the elements $j\bar{a}k$, lam, and thi, which occur in the specimens in forms such as:—ka-do-fan- $j\bar{a}k$, he has been found again; $w\bar{a}$ -karr-do-lam- $d\bar{a}$, he went and joined; ma- $m\bar{a}n$ ka-thok-lam- $d\bar{a}$, they are, they were; ka-di-rak-thi- $y\bar{a}$, I am dying. But I am unable to see the real meaning of these words.

A Present definite and an Imperfect are formed by adding the verb am, to remain, to the root or to the participle in $d\bar{a}$. Thus, $tong-d\bar{a}$ ka-am, he is sitting; $ch\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$ $ka-am-\bar{a}$, they are eating; nai ka-prai ka-am, I was striking.

A kind of *Perfect* is effected by adding the verb *thok*, to be; thus, *ka-māng-thok*, he has been lost.

The suffix of the Future is ni: thus, nai ka-pā hin-thā wā-ni ma-thē-ni, I my father to go-will (and) say-will. The list of words furnishes the following forms: nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di, I shall be; nai pa-rai-ningdi, I shall strike; nang a-prai-nā, thou wilt strike; ma-māng ka-prai-rā, he will strike; nai-ni a-prai-ni-kān, we shall strike; nang-in a-prai-nān, you will strike; ma-mā-ni ka-prai-rang, they will strike. I do not understand all these forms; nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di, I shall be, must be compared with forms such as Hallām kei om-kā-tī, I shall be. Compare p. 196 above. The suffix rā of the third person singular and rang of the third person plural is probably a postposition meaning 'for', 'in order to.' Compare Infinitive. The other suffixes have probably a similar meaning.

Thus, $w\bar{a}$, go; a- $la\bar{u}$, take; ka-thok, be. We also find imperatives formed by means of the suffixes \bar{a} , $n\bar{a}$, and $p\bar{a}$. Thus, ka- $ch\bar{e}n$ - \bar{a} , run; ap- $n\bar{a}$, put; $ch\bar{e}t$ - $p\bar{a}$, go. I cannot analyse the forms $y\bar{u}$ -koong, sit, and ma-hai- $p\bar{a}$ - $th\bar{u}t$ - $ch\bar{a}$, cause me to be. The first person plural is formed by adding $anch\bar{e}$ or $inch\bar{e}$; thus, $ch\bar{a}nch\bar{e}$ $n\bar{e}anch\bar{e}$ $n\bar{u}ng\bar{u}i$ -in- $ch\bar{e}$, let us eat, drink, and make merry.

The root alone, without any suffix, is often used as an *Infinitive* or *Verbal noun*. Thus, nain nūng-āi-nā kampā-dā ta-am ka-chūm, we merrily gladly to-remain proper-is. Adverbial sentences are formed by adding postpositions to this form. Thus, ma-di-thūng-ki, dying from, after he had died; marra-wān-thūng-tā, his-coming-at, as soon as he came;

ma-plūng sing-dā, his-mind-wise-becoming-in, when he came to senses; ma-am-lā-ni, his being-in, while he was; ma-hān-sūt-nā, up-looking-at, when he looked up, etc. The suffixes dā, nū, and pā are sometimes added to the verbal noun. Thus, karr-dām-dā, dancing; ka-thok-nū, to be; yē-pā, to fill. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose seems to be rang. Thus, a-kāng-rūp thūng nūng-āi-nā ka-do-chāng-rang, my-friends with merrily together-eating-for, in order to make merry with my friends; ta-yā-pang kū-dūi-rang, how-much nice-being-for, how nice would it have been. The suffix rā in ka-thok-rā, to be; ta-prai-na-rā, to strike, is probably identical with rang. The purpose of an action is also denoted by adding an imperative in connection with the participle ē-dā, saying. Thus, wak a-rūng ē-dā ma-mā laū-thā si-dā, 'pigs tend,' saying his fields-to (he) sent, he sent him to his fields in order to tend pigs.

Participles.—The Relative participles have been dealt with under Relative pronouns. The usual suffixes of the Adverbial participle are $d\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$. Thus, $kam-p\bar{a}-d\bar{a}$, gladly; $n\bar{u}ng-\bar{a}i-n\bar{a}$, merrily. A suffix $l\bar{a}$ or $l\bar{a}n$ occurs in $ma-sa-w\bar{a}i$ chā- $mi-l\bar{a}$ ka-poi $y\bar{e}-p\bar{a}$ sūk- $n\bar{a}$, husks eating belly to-fill wishing; $nang-\bar{a}$ sē $p\bar{a}$ $ma-to-l\bar{a}n$ nang $a-p\bar{a}\bar{u}th\bar{e}$ nai $ma-ka-toi-ka-m\bar{a}-to-m\bar{e}$, thy service doing thy word I transgress-did-not. These forms may also be considered as conjunctive participles. They are originally probably verbal nouns with a postposition. The same is the case with forms such as mao-ma-ki, wickedly; ta-di, on saying, etc. The common form in $d\bar{a}$ may often be considered as a Conjunctive participle. Thus, $b\bar{u}$ horr- $d\bar{a}$ ka-chā- $p\bar{a}$ a-pa-hil, cloth bringing my-son cause-to-wear. The suffix $l\bar{a}$ is used in the same way in $ma-m\bar{a}$ ka-dūngē a-prai- $l\bar{a}$ rūi-yā a-ktū, him well beating ropes-with bind.

There is no Passive voice. Fā-dā, he has been found, literally means 'his finding

(took place)'; nai ma-prai-dā, I am struck, lit. me he strikes, etc.

Compound verbs are freely used in order to modify the meaning of the verbs. Thus, wang, come; chen, run; wang-chen, run towards; them, divide; pi, give; ka-them-pi, he divided and gave; wa, go; karr-do, join; wa-karr-do-lam-da, he went and joined. In most cases we have no materials for deciding which meaning the members of a compound have. Thus, ma-hai-pi, give; hāi-sok, draw; won-pi-sā-dā, he pitied; pa-then-dā, he entreated, etc. Po seems to give a transitive force to the verb; thus, po-māng, to waste. Hān or hang seems to denote motion upwards; thus, ma-hān-sūt-nā, looking up; hang-yong, to jump up. The suffix rak seems to mean 'to begin,' 'to be about'; thus, ka-di-rak-thi-yā, I am about to die. Thok probably corresponds to Lushēi chhuak, to go out; thus, ma-pāng wāng-thok-dā, his father came-went-out, etc.

The Negative particle is $m\bar{a}$ or $m\bar{a}ng$. Thus, $ka-th\bar{a}-ka-m\bar{a}$, good-not, bad; $pi-m\bar{a}ng$, gave not. When it is added to verbs it generally occurs in the form $m\bar{e}$. Thus, $ma-pi-m\bar{e}$, thou gavest not. The prefix ka in $ka-m\bar{a}$ seems to show that the negative particle is still felt as a verbal root. In $a-ma-d\bar{a}$, was not, the negative is apparently used as an ordinary

verb.

I have not found any Interrogative particle.

Order of Words.—The usual order of words is subject, object, verb. The indirect object sometimes precedes and sometimes follows the direct one.

[No. 34.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

HIRŌI-LAMGANG.

SPECIMEN I.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh, 1899.)

khat-ki ma-chā-pā kini ka-am. Māna la-ki thom-pū Man one-of his-sons twowere. Them from-amongst younger chā-pāng ma-pā hiniyā thē-dā, a-pā nai-ka-tūm ā-raū a-wā father 80n his-father to said. to-me-to-be-allotted that goodsnai-ka hinthā mahai-pi.' A-pā ā-raŭ ma-ki-ni ngin ka-thēm-pi. towards give.' His-father me goodsthem-two for divided. Ni ki-ni khat am-thirā ma-chā-pā thom-pū ā-raū ma-pūm pū-dā remaining Days twoone his-son younger wealth allcarrying lam-klā laipāk khat thā wā-da mao-ma-ki ā-raū ma-pūm po-māng-dā. distant country one to having-gone wickedly wealth allMa-mang ā-raū ma-pūm po-māng-dā laipāk awā kūm-i bū wealth allwastedcountry thatyear-in āwa-thūng ma-māng manūkadai tāng-dā; nang-dā. Ma-māng laipāk became-dear; thereupon he became-wretched. very He country awā-thā ka-am khat hin-thā wā-karrdo-lam-dā. mi Awā mi wak that-in residing man one towent-and-joined. That man swine a-rung ē-dā ma-mā laū-thā si-dā. Wak ro-chāk-nā pasture saying his field-to sent (him). Swine (by) which-was-eaten awā yaunā chāmi-lā ka-poi ma-sa-wāi yēpā sūk-nā kū-khat-son husks that even by-eating belly to-fill wished-although any-one Ma-plung pi-mang. sing-dā ma-māng ma-thainā thē-cha-dā, 'ka-pā gave-not. His-mind became-sensible he to-himself said, 'my-father's ā-raū klo ma-sarāwor-rēt ka-wāt ka-mā bū chā-dā ka-amā. takingmoney servants deficiency without rice eating are-living. Nai-yā ka-poi ka-tham ka-di-rak-thi-ya. Nai ka-pā hin-thā wā-ni I-whereas my-belly of-hunger am-about-to-die. I my-father will-go to ma-thē-ni. "a-pā, nai-yā Lāi hin-tha pāp cho-cha-nū ahin-rūko will-say, "father, I Godtosin committed you-before-too chc-cha-nū. Nai-yē nang a-chā-pā ka-thok-nū ka-tik-mē. A-sarāworr sēn-klo committed. your 80n to-be fit-am-not. Servant hired . khat mahai-pā-thūt-chā.", Ma-mang rip-dā ma-pā hin-tha one cause-me-to-be." He got-up his-father to

won-pi-sā-dā, Lam-klā ma-am-lāni ma-pāng dai-dā, arrbāngdā. his-father was-compassionate, Place-far when-he-was-yet saw, came. ma-nā-chā wang-chen-dā, ma-lolē arrpom-dā, yon-dā. Āo-thū the-da. embraced, kissed. Thereupon his-son said. his-neck cho-cha-nū. · a-pā, nai-yē Lāi hin-thā pāp ahin-rūko cho-cha-nū pāp you-before-too committed. father, I to sincommitted God ka-tik-mē. ma-sarāwor-rēt ka-thok-nü Ma-pang Nai-yē nang a-chā-pā His-father his-servants to-be worthy-am-not.' your son hin-thā thē-dā, 'bū ka-thā-lang-lang horr-dā ka-chā-pā a-pa-hil; cause-to-wear; clothes best bringing my-80n tosaid. khongūp ka-chā-pā lēn ap-nā; ma-khūt lēn khūtpārr ap-nā, ma-khū shoes put-on; my-son put-on, his-feet his-hand on ka-mäng-thok, hawā ka-di-karrhē-lā. ka-kin-jerrpa-dā; woi-khat he-was-lost, has-become-alive-because; this from-being-dead, again nain chān-chē nēan-chē nūngāi-in-chē.' Awā-to-nū ka-do-fan-jāk; Thus drinking let-us-be-merry.' has-been-found-because; me eating ma-mān nūngāi-chē. they rejoiced.

Han-thū-dēm-pang ma-chā-pā ka-wērr laū-thā ka-am. Ma-māng ma-in-thang his-house-towards elder field-to Hewas. At-that-time his-son marr-wannā khong ga-dūm karrdām-dā a-jā-dā. Ma-mang ma-saraworr khat his-servant dancing heard. Hе in-coming drumbeating one arrthang-da, khēl-dā. Ma-sarāworr 'a-nāo-pā 'ta-plē-dā?' on-dā, 'what-is-this?' asked. His-servant answered, 'your-brother calling, ka-koi-ka-parrnā-ga-mā karrbāng-ā Ma-mang ē-dā karrbāng-dā. illness-without He has-come saying has-come. Āo-thū pantra khāng-dā.' ma-mang ma-plung pa-thi-dā na-pang has-given.' Thereupon hehis-mind being-angry feast your-father ma-ramē ma-pāng wang-thok-da Awā-kē arrbang-lüt ta-di ro-mē. This reason-for his-father came-out refused. on-saying enter ma-pā hin-thā arrthāng-dā, Āo-thū ma-mang ma-mā pa-thēm-dā. entreated. he his-father toanswered, 'look, Thereupon him kūm haū-rak-pang nanga sēpā ma-to-lān woi-khat-son nang a-pāū-thē your your service in-doing once-even commandmentso-many hāo-thū-kāk nangai nai a-kāng-rūp thung nūngāi-nā ma-ka-toi-ka-mā-to-mē; nevertheless you my companions withmerrily disobey-did-not; An-to-ma-nā nanga-ki ā-raū ma-pi-mē. ka-do-chāng-rang kēl ma-son khat wealth one have-not-given. Whereas your together-to-eat goat young po-māng-dā, ra-chā-pā hawā marra-wān-thūng-tā, ma-pūm kasū-bi hin-thā pi-dā his-returning-on, allharlot toby-giving wasted, your-son this

ma-pāng thē-dā, 'ka-chā-pā, nang nēmbē Āo-thū nang pāntrā khāng-dā.' you feast have-given.' Thereupon his-father said, ' my-80n, you me-with ka-dēt-ka-mā ka-am-pamēn, nai-ka-hin ka-am-ki-makhai nanga-ki. Na-nāo-pā ceaselessly are-in-company, me-to(with) whatever-is yours-is. Your-brother hawā ma-di-thung-ki, woi-khat ring-dā; ka-māng-ka-rahēl-dā, fā-dā; again came-alive; from-being-lost, was-found; we this from-being-dead, ka-chūm.' nūngāi-nā kampā-dā ta-am merrily gladlyto-remain it-is-proper.'

[No. 35.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

HIRŌI-LAMGĀNG.

SPECIMEN II.

(STATE, MANIPUR.)

(Babu Bisharup Singh.)

A PIECE OF FOLKLORE TAKEN FROM THE LIPS OF A LAMGANG.

khat-lo ka-thok-dā. sangār-lē pa-wā Sangār-nā Arango pa-wā Formerly wild-cat-with bird one-friendship was. Wild-cat birdhin-thā, 'in tong-pli-da?' ē-dā khēl-dā. Āo-thū 'nai-ki pa-wā hawā, 'house asked. Thereupon towhere-is?" saying birdthat, 'my rū-būl ka-am, ē-dā arrthang-da. Harakhūn sangār-nā wā-dā in is, replied. In-morning wild-catwent house bamboo-root saying pa-wā hawā a-ma-dā. Ma-mang ma-hān-sūt-nā pa-wā hawā rū birdthatwas-not. on-looking-up birdthatbamboo Āo-thū ma-don-thā am-dā. ma-mang ma-plung pa-thi-dā, hang-yong-da, Thereupon he his-mind being-angry, on-jumping-up, the-branch-on was.ēdā wāng-yong-dā. ma-shon khat ka-yong-dā; aichāni-dā ma-khūt-thū mēēk caught; on-his-going-to-eat his-hand-on dung voiding flew-away. 'Ma-dak mēēk ma-chāk-nā Sangār hawā kū-dūi-yā. ngālbi chā-bā-ni Wild-cat that dungon-eating found-it-nice. 'Flesh veryif-eaten kū-dūi-rang,' ē-dā ta-va-pang sangār hawā ngo-dā sun-cha-da. saying how-much (it)-would-be-nice, wild-catthatangrily departed.

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

Once upon a time a wild cat made friends with a bird. One day he asked the bird where it lived and learnt that it was at the root of a bamboo. The next morning the wild cat went there, but the bird was gone. The cat then looked up and saw the bird on the branch of the bamboo. He got angry, jumped up, and seized a young bird. When he was going to eat it, the bird voided dung on his paw and flew away. The wild cat ate the dung and found it very good. 'How nice it would have been to eat the flesh,' he thought, and went angrily away.

STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES

	Engli	ish.			Rār	gkhōl	(Cacha	ar).		Hal	llām ((Sylhet)		Langrong (Hil	l Tippe	rah).	
1.	One				In-kāt					In-khāt .				Khāt-kā, or pā	kāt		
2.	Two	t;			In-nī					In-ni				In-ni-kā, <i>or</i> pā	ni		
3,	Three				In-tüm	•				In-thūm		•		In-thūm-kā, or	pā-tű	m	
4.	Four				Min-li (1	ni-li)				Man-li				In-lik-kā, or pā	i-li		
5.	Five				Ringā					Ra-ngā				Re-ngā-kā, or j	pā-ngā		
6.	Six				Ruōk (g	a-rūk)			Ā-rūk				Rūk-kā, or pā-r	ūk		
7.	Seven				Sārī					Sa-ri				Sarri-kā, or pā	sarri		
8.	Eight				Giriit (g	a-rīt)				Ā-riet		•		Riet-kā, or pā-	riet		
9.	Nine		•		Gűők					Ā-kūok	• :	•		Ū-kā, or pā-ki	iâe		
10.	Ten				Shōm					Sâm .	•	•		Sâm-kā, or pā-	shūon	ı	
11.	Twenty		•		Shōm-ni		٠	•		Sâm inni			•	Shâm-an-ni-kā	or sh	âm-n	i.
12.	Fifty				Shōm-ri	ngā		•		Sâm rang	5	•		Shom-rungā			•
13.	Hundred	•	•		Ra-jā-kā	t				Rāa khāt	(or 1	rā-jā k	hāt-tā)	Rā-jā-kā			
14.	Ι.				Gē-mā					Kei, kei-n	nā.			Kai-mā .			
15.	Of me		٠		Gēnī	•		,		Kā				Kai-mā-tā			
16.	Mine		٠	٠.	Gēnī		•			Kei-mā-tā	i, or	kā-tā		Kai-mā-tā	•		
17.	We			٠.	Gēmā-h	ai				Kei-ni (o	r kei	-mā-n	i) .	Kai-mā-ni, or	kai-ni		
18.	Of us	٠			Gémā-h	ai-nī	٠			Kān		•		Kai-mā-ni-tā,	or kai	-ni-tā	
19.	Our	•	•		Gēmā-h	ai-ni	•			Kei-ni kā	n-tā			Kai-mā-ni-tā,	or kai	-ni-tā	
20.	Thou	•			Nang	•		•		Nang-mā	, or	nang	: .	Nang-mā	•	•	
21.	Of thee				Nangmi	i			•	Nā	•	٠		Nang-mā-tā	•		
22.	Thine				Nangmi	i		•		Nang-mā	-tā, o	or nā-t	ā.	Nang-mā-tā		•	
23.	You	•			Nangmi	i-hai	•	٠		Nang-ni- ni)	ngāi	(or n	ang-mā-	Nang-mā-ni			,
24.	Of you				Nangmi	i-hai-r	ű.			Nān	•.			Nang-mā-ni-tā			
25.	Your				Nangmi	i-hai-r	ű.	•		Nang-ni mā-ni-	nān tā).	tā (o	r nang-	Nang-mā-ni-ti			

An-khat	Aimol (Mauipur).		Ch	iru (M	anipur)		
An-thūm A-thūm Man-li Mi-li Rā-ngā Ra-ngā Ka-rūk Ū-rūk Sari Sirik Ka-riet Arrēt Kūo A-ko Som Som Som rāngā Som-ra-ngā Rēkhat Arja-khat Kai Kai Kai-ka-chaūng Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ka-ni Kai Kai-ni Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni-ka-chaūng Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Nang	An-khat .		-	A-khat				-
Man-li Mi-li Rā-ngā Ra-ngā Ka-rūk Ú-rūk Sari Sirik Ka-riet Arrēt Kūo A-ko Som Som Som Som Som rāngā Som-ra-ngā Rēkhat Arja-khat Kai Kai Kai-ka-chaūng Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ni Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Nang	An-ni .			A-di			•	
Rā-ngā Ra-ngā Ka-rūk Ú-rūk Sari Sirik Ka-riet Arrēt Kūo A-ko Som Som Som Som Som rāngā Som-ra-ngā Rēkhat Arja-khat Kai Kai Kai-ka-chaūng Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ni Kai-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Nang	An-thūm			A-thüm				
Ka-rūk . <td>Man-li .</td> <th></th> <td></td> <td>Mi-li</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>	Man-li .			Mi-li				
Sari Sirik Ka-riet Arrēt Kūo A-ko Som Som Som Som Som ni Som-di Som rāngā Som-ra-ngā Rēkhat Arja-khat Kai Kai Kai Kai Kai Kai Kai-ka-chaūng Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ni Kai-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni Kai-ni Nang Nang	Rā-ngā .			Ra-ngā				
Ka-riet . Arrēt Kūo . A-ko Som . Som Som . Som Som ni . Som-di Som rāngā . Som-ra-ngā Rēkhat . Arja-khat Kai . Kai Kai . Kai Kai-ka-chaūng . Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ni . Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni . Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni . Kai-ni Nang . Nang	Ka-rūk .			Ū-rūk			•	
Kūo	Sari .		•	Sirik	•		•	
Som .	Ka-riet .			Arrēt		•	•	
Som ni . <td>Kūo .</td> <th></th> <td></td> <td>A-ko</td> <td>• 1</td> <td>•</td> <td>•</td> <td>•</td>	Kūo .			A-ko	• 1	•	•	•
Som rängä . Som-ra-ngä Rēkhat . Arja-khat Kai . Kai Kai-ka-chaūng . Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ka-ni . Kai Kai-ni . Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni-ka-chaūng . Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni . . Nang . .	Som .			Som	•	•		
Rēkhat . Arja-khat Kai . Kai Kai-ka-chaūng . Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ka-ni . Kai Kai-ni . Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni-ka-chaūng . Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni . . Nang . .	Som ni .			Som-di	•	•	•	
Kai	Som rängä			Som-ra-	ngā		•	
Kai-ka-chaūng . Kai-ka-chong, ka- Kai-ka-ni . Kai Kai-ni . Kai-kā-ni (kai-ni) Kai-ni-ka-chaūng . Kai-ni ka-chong Kai-ni . Kai-ni Nang . Nang	Rēkhat .			Arja-kh	at	٠	•	
Kai-ka-ni .	Kai .	• •		Kai	•		•	
Kai-ni	Kai-ka-chaū	ng .		Kai-ka-	chong	, ka-	•	
Kai-ni-ka-chaūng Kai-ni ka-chong . Kai-ni	Kai-ka-ni			Kai				
Kai-ni Kai-ni	Kai-ni .			Kai-kā-	-ni (k	ai-ni)		
Nang Nang	Kai-ni-ka-cl	aung .		Kai-ni	ka-ch	ong		•
	Kai-ni .			Kai-ni	•		•	
Nang-pa-chañng Nang chong, na-	Nang .			Nang			•	c
Hong-ma-onating	Nang-na-ch	aūng .		Nang c	hong,	na-		
Nang-na-ni Nang	Nang-na-ni			Nang	•	•		
Nang-ni Nang-ni	Nang-ni .			Nang-1	ni .	•		
Nang-ni-na-chaung Nang-ni chong	Nang-ni-na-	chaung .	,	Nang-1	ni cho	ng•.	•	
Nang-ni Nang-ni	Nang-ni .			. Nang-	ni .			

K	olrēn (Manip	our).		Kōm (Manipu	ı r).	
Khat					In-khat .			
Ki-ni					I-nhi .			
Kan-thū	m				In-thūm .			
Milli					Malli .			
Ra-ngā					Ra-ngā .			
Kū-rūk			•		Ka-rūk .	•		
Sāri					Sari .			
Ki-rēt			•		Karët .			
Kūo	•				Kū .			
Som					Sōm .			
Som-ni			•		Sōm-nhi			
Som ra-1	ıgā	•			Sōm-rangā			
Rai-khat		•	٠		Rē-khat .			
Kai					Kai .			
Kai chon	g, ka				Ka-tōng		•	
Kai-tā	•	•.			Kai-si .			
Kai-ni					Kai-ni .	•		
Kai-ni cl	ong				Kai-ni-tōng	٠		
Kai-ni-tā	•		٠		Kai-ni-si			
Nang		• 1	•		Nang .			
Nang che	ong, 1	12		٠.	Nang-tōng			
Nang-tā	•	• ,	٠		Nang-tā-si		•	
Nang-ni				-	Nang-ni .			
Nang-ni	chong				Nangni-tōng			
Nang-ni-	ā				Nang-ni-si			

K.-C. G.-294

IN THE OLD KUKI DIALECTS.

	anipu	,.	Augi (h	Lanipu	r).		Hirōi-Lamgāng (Manipur). English.
A-khā .			Āto, khē				Khat 1. One.
A-ni .			A-nhi .				Ki-ni 2. Two.
In-thūm .		٠.	A-thūm .				Ka-dūm 3. Three.
ılli .			Palli .				Pilli 4. Four.
Ra-ngā .			Pa-ngā .				Pa-ra-ngā 5. Five.
A-rūk .			Ta-rūk .	•			Tū-rūk 6. Six.
Sēri .			Tak-si .				Tik-siyū 7. Seven.
Ari .			Ta-rik .				Ti-rēt 8. Eight.
A-kū .			Ta-kū .				Ta-kū 9. Nine.
A-som .			Som .				Som 10. Ten.
Som-ni .			Som-nhi .				Som ki-ni 11. Twenty.
Som-ngā.			Som-pa-ngā				Som pa-ra-ngā 12. Fifty.
Ri-yā-h .			A-yā-khē				Arja khat 13. Hundred.
Kai .			Ni .				Nai 14. I.
Ka tong, ka-			Ni ka-pē, ka	٠.			Naik pāūthē, ka 15. Of me.
Ka-tā .			Ni ka .	•		٠.	Nai ka-ti 16. Mine.
Ka-ni .			Ni-hing .				Nain 17. We.
Ka-ni tong			Ni-hing ka-p	ē.			Nain päüthē 18. Of us.
Ka-ni-tā .	•	•	Ni-hing .				Nai ki-ki 19. Our.
Nang .		٠.	Nang .				Nangā 20. Thou.
Nang tong, na	!-		Nang kapē,	na-			Nangā pāūthē, na 21. Of thee.
Nang-tā			Nang .				Nangi hin 22. Thine.
Nangai .			Nang-hing				Nangin 23. You.
Nangai tong			Nang-hing				Nanga-nā pāūthē 24. Of you.
Nangai-tā			Nang-hing				Nanganaki 25. Your.

Eng	lish.			Rängkhöl	(Cachar).		H	allām ((Sylhet).	Lar	igrong (1	Iill Ti _l	perah)).
26. He .			•	Āmā .			-	Āmā (or	ā-ni-c	cha)		• Ā-ni				
27. Of him				Āmā-ni .				Ā.				. Ā-ni-t	ā.			,
28. His .				Āmā-nī .	•			Ā-mā-ā-t tā).	ā, o r	ā-tā (or a-n	i- Ā-ni-t	ā.			
29. They				Āmā-hai .				Ān-ni-ng	āi (or	An-r	nā-ni)	. Ān-mi	i-ni			
30. Of them				Āmā-hai-nī				Ān				. Ān-mi	i-ni-tā			
31. Their				Āmā-hai-nī				Ān-ni-ng (or an-	āi ān -mā-n	-ta, o i-tā).	r ān-	ā Ān-mi	i-ni-tā			
32. Hand		•		Gűt (kűt)				Kūt			•	. Kūt	٠.			
33. Foot	. •	•		Kē .		·		Ke		•		. Fēi, o	keay			
34. Nose	•			Nak (nār)				Nār	•			. Nar				
35. Eye .				Ā-mig or āmit	(mit)			Mit				. Mit				
36. Mouth				Ā-mūr .				Mūr, or l	ōāyl			. Mūr				
7. Tooth				Hā .				Hā				. Hā				
88. Ear .				Mi-gor (migūr)			Kor (or k	cūr)		•	. Kūor				
39. Hair	,			Shām (sām)	• •			Sām				. Sām				
40. Head	•			Ā-lū .				Lű				. Lā				
1. Tongue	•			Mi-lē (mē-lē)			-	Ma-lei				. Lai				
2. Belly				Ā-ping .				Von				. Vân, c	r püng	•	•	
3. Back				Ā-rōl (rūöng)				Rūong				. Rūang				
4. Iron				Tir .				Thir				. Thir		·		
5. Gold	. ,			Rangajār (rān	g•mā-j	āk)		Rāng kā	ichāk	(or	rāng-i	i- Rāngā	-chāk			
16. Silver				Shūm .	•			Sūm, or		i		. Dhar				
17. Father				Ga-pā .				Pā				. Pā			•.	
48. Mother	•			Ga-nūng (nū)				Nū				. Nū				
49. Brother		•		Ga-ūpā (elder (younger).), Ga-	shump	ā	Pārul ²				. Nāi				
50. Sister				Ga-ŭ-nū (elder (younger).), Ga-	shung	nū	Sār-nū³				. Far-ni	i.			
51. Man				Miriim (mī-ri	n)			Mi, mirie	m,4 p	ลี-sลีl ⁵		. Mi-pā	, <i>or</i> pā-	āl		
52. Woman	-			Nūpāng .				Nū-pāng				. Mi-nū	, or nü-	nanor		

¹ Mūr is the outer surface of the mouth, bāy also includes the cavity.
2 U-nū, elder sister; nāi-nū, younger sister.
4 Human being.
K.-C. G.—296 ² Ū-pā, elder brother; nāi-pā, younger brother. sing, ⁵ A male.

Aimol (Ma	anipur)).	Chiru (Manipur).
Na-tak, a-mā			А-та
Na-tak-ka-chai	ing		A-mā chong, a
A-mā-tā .			А-та
A-mā-ni, an-mi	ā-ni		A-mā-ni
A-mā-ni chaŭn	g		A-mā-ni chong
A-mā-ni .			A-mā-ni
Kūt .			Khūt
Kē .			Kē
Nār .		•	Nārr
Mit .			Mik
Mūr .			A-nērrko
Hā .	•	•	A-hā
Kūor .			Arrkorr
Sam .			Sam
Lū .			Lū
Lai .			Mallai
Won .		٠	Won
Ting .			Karrnam
Thir .			Thirr
Rängkachak	•	•	Rāngkachak
Rūfāi .			Dångkā
A-pā .			Ка-ра
A-nū	• .	•	Кй-пй
A-nāi-pang-pā	•		Ka-nai-pang-pā
Ka-char-nű			Ka-sarr-nū
Pasal .	•		A-pā
Númai .	•		Nū-pāng
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Kolrēn (A	fanipu	r).		Кот (Ма	nipur)	2,	
A-mā .	•			A-mā			•
A-mā chong, a	-			A-mā-tōng			
A-mā-tā.	•			A-mā-si .			
An-mā-ņi				An-mā-ni			
An-mā-ni chon	ıg			An-mā-ni-tōng	•	•	
An-mā-ni-tā	•	,		An-mā-ni-si	• .		
Kūt .		•		Ka-kū .	• .	•	
Kē .		•		Ka-kē	• .		
A-nārr .	• .			Ka-nhār .			
A-mit .	• .			Ka-mhit .			
A-nerr .	. ,	•		Ka-nhēr .	•		
A-hā .		•		Ka-hā .		•	
A-kūworr		•		Ka-kūr 🕻	• ,		
A-sam .	• .			Ka-sam .	• .	•	
A-lū .	• .			Ka-lū .	• .	•	
A-lai .	• .			Ka-ma-lai		• ,	
A-won .	•			Ka-wōn .			
A-ting .				Ka-thūm.	• .	•	
Thirr .	•			Thir .	• .	٠	
Sonā .	•			Sanā .	•	• •	\cdot
Dangkā (same	as ru	рев)	•	Dangkā .		• ;,	
Ka-pā	•	•	•	Ka-pā	• .	• 5	
Ka-nū .		•		Ka-nū .	• .	:	
Ki-nāi .	•			Ka-nāi .		•	
Ki-charr-nū	•	•		Ka-sar-nű			
PasaI . ·		•		Pasē .	• ,	•	
Nūmai .	•	•		Nümhai .	• 1	•	

Pūrūm	(Mani	pur).		. Anāl (M	(anipur)	·	Hirōi-Lamgāng	g (Manip	ur).	English.
Mo-jū .	•,		_	Amā-bē .			Ma-mā .			26. He.
Ma tong-jū, n	18-			Amā-bē kapē	ma-		Ma-mā pāūthē	, ma		27. Of him.
Ma-tā .				Amā-bē .			Ma-mā ki			28. His.
Ma-ni-chũ				Amā-hing			Ma-mān .			29. They.
Ma-ni tong				Amā-hing ka	pē .		Ma-mān pāūth	ē .		30. Of them.
Ma-ni-chū			•	Amā-hing			Ma-mānā			31. Their.
Kūt .				Ka-kū .			A-khūt .			32. Hand.
Kē .				Ka-khū .			A-khū .			33. Foot.
Nātūng .		• ,		Ka-nhāl .			A-nārr .			34. Nose.
Mit .				Ka-mhi .			A-mit .			35. Eye.
Bāo .				Ka-nhing-kol	•		A-nērr .			36. Mouth.
Hā .		•		Ka-hā .	•		A-hā .			37. Tooth.
Kürr .				Ka-nā	• .		Ā-ka-nā .		.· .	38. Ear.
Sam.		•		Ka-sam .	• .		A-sam .			39. Hair.
Lū.			٠.	Ka-lū-chē	• .	• .	A-lū .			40. Head.
Lai .	•	•		Ka-bi-li .		•:	A-plai .	•		41. Tongue.
Won .			•	Ка-ро .		•	A-poi .			42. Belly.
Ting .				Ka-pang.	•	• •	A-pang .			43. Back.
Atū .	• ,			Thal .	• ,	• •	Thirr .			44. Iron.
Sonā.		•		Sanā .	• .		Sēnā .	•		45. Gold.
Rūpā -	•	,		Lūpā .	• .	•	Lūpā .	•		46. Silver.
Ма-ра .		•		Pā.	• .	•	А-ра .	•		47. Father.
Ma-nū .	•		٠.	No .	•	•	A-nū .			48. Mother.
Ma-nāū .		•		Ka-nē .	• .		А-пао •	•		49. Brother.
A-sarr-nű	•	•		A-chalo .	•	•	A-charr .	•••	•	50. Sister.
A-pā •		•		Sēn-pā .	. •	•	Pasēl-pā •	• • ;	• .	51. Man.
Namai .		•		Sē-nű.	•	• 0	Si-nū .		•	52. Woman.

Eng	lish.			Rängkho	ol (Cach	ıar).	10	1	Hallām	(Syl	het).		Lang	rong	(Hill T	ipperah	1).
53. Wife	•			Adaounā (da	umā)			Dong-m	ıä.	•	•		Nű-pűi				
54. Child				Nai-tē .				Nāi, or	nāi-pā	ng			Nāi-pan	g			
55. Son				Bashal, (nai	bā-sāl)), nai-	-tē.	Nāi, or	nāi-pā	ng			Nāi-pā				
56. Daughter				Nū-pāng-tē		٠.		Nāi nū-	pāng,	or si	i-nū²		Nåi-nū	•			
57. Slave				Shūōk .				Sūok					Sēl	•			
58. Cultivator	٠.	•		Lū-jōn-hai				Ālachai	loivāt	3					<u>:</u>		
59. Shepherd				Shīlāvai .				Rākhāl ⁴									
60. God				Jābai, jōbai, tīn).	Pā-th	iin¹ (Pā-	Pā-tiyer	٠.				Khūā-b	ang	•		
61. Devil				Pathiim¹ sh shā-māk).	āmuk	(Pā-	tīn-	Khori									
62. Sun .				Mīshā (mī-sā	ή.			Nī-sā	•				Ni	•			
63. Moon		٠		Tā	•			Thā			·		Ţhlā				
64. Star				Ārshī .	•			Ār-si		•			Ãr-chi			•	
65. Fire				Mēi (mē)				Mēi	•	•	٠		Mēi		٠.		
66. Water	•	٠		Dui .	•	•		Tāi	•	•			Ţāi			٠	
67. House .	•	•	•	Īn, Īju (sm house).	all te	mpore	ary	In .	•				In	•			
68. Horse		•		Gōrai (sā-kor)	:		Sā-kor				•	Sā-kor		•	٠	
69. Co₩		•	•	Shërha (shër	hāt)			Se-rāt	•		•		Serāt	•	•	•	
70. Dog .	•	•	•	Ŭi	•	•		Ũi (or ₩	rāi)	•	•		Wūi	•		•	
71. Cat .		•	•	Meng .	•	•		Ā-meng	•		•		Meng .	•	•		
72. Cock ·	•	•	•	Ārjār (ārkōng	()	•		Ār	•		•		Ār.				•
73. Duck	•	•		Vātō (vātōk)	•	•		Vātok	•				Vāi-āķ		•		
74. Ass .	•	•		Sākōr .	•	•		Gāddā	• 1					٠.			
5. Camel	•	•						Må-king-	kang	•			Mā-king-	kan	g.	٠	
6. Bird		•		Vār (ār)	•	•		Vā.	•	•			Vã		•	•	
7. Go 7.	•	٠		Phē-rō (fē-rō)	•	•		Sēro (sin	g.), sē	-roi	(plur.)		Kāl-nā (Infin	itive)		
8. Eat .	•	•		Nē-rō, phur-rō	(fāk-	r ō)		Sā-ro, <i>or</i>	nē-ro		•		Fāk-nā,	or ne	k-nā	٠	
9. Sit 7				Tōi-rō				In-süng-r	0				Thung-na				

<sup>M or n in different villages.
Nāi nā-pāng means also 'girl', tā-nā means only 'daughter.'
Lit. jhum cutter.
A Bengali word.</sup>

Aimol (Maniput	:).		Chiru (Manipur).
A-lom-nū .			A-nüngāk
Nāi-tē-pā			Năi-tē
Anāi•pasal-nāi			Ka-sā-pā.
Anāi-nūmai-nāi			Кй-яй-лй
Swok-pā			Souk
Laŭ-chon-mi-këng			Loi-nēi hāi • · ·
Yāŭ sēl-pa kēng			Kēbēr sēn hāi
Pathien .		•	Pithēn, Pathin
Khotāng	•		Rāikho
Ni			Ani
Tha	•		Tha
Ārsi	• /	•	Ārrsi
Mai			Mai
Tūi	•		Tāi
In	• · ·		In
Sēkor		. .	Sakor
Sērāt • • •			Shi
Ūi		•	Űi
Mēng	•		Hūitūng
År-khong .			Ārr-khong
Wātok	•	•	Watok
Gādhā			Gādhā
Űt			Űt
Wātē	·.	٠.	Vā . ,
Ka-chē	:		Ā-shē
Ka-chā		٠.	Ka-shāk
A-aung			А-sű

Kolrēn (I	Manipu	ır).		Kō	m (Ma	nipur)		-
Ki-nūmai			٠.	Ka-nűml	nai			•
Nāi-pang.				Nāi-pang				
Ki-cha-pā				Ka-sā-pā			•	
Ki-cha-nū				Ka-sā-nũ				
Ki-soūk-pā	•		٠.	Shak	• -		•	
Ki-lai-tho pas	al			Lhai-ga-	thōk			
Yāo khāl pasa	1			Kyāyōng	-kasēr	•		
Pathien .	•.			Pathin				
Pathiën sa-ma	k			Ramkhū	rhı			
Ni .	•			Ka-ni			• .	
Thā .	•	•		Tha .		• -		
Āsi .		•		Ārsi				
Mai .	•			Mai .				
Tūi .	•	•		Tūi		•		
Ín '.	•	•		In .		•		
Sakorr .	•	•		Sakor				
Sērāt .	•	•		Sērhāt				
Ūi .		•		Ūi .				
Ngāitong .	•			Mëng-të		•		
Ārr-khong	4	•		Ār-khōng				
Ātok .		•		Ātōk				
Gādhā .		•		Gādhā		• .		
Ūt .	•			Üŧ	•	•		
wā .	•		·	Wā.	•	•		
Ka-chē .	•	•		Kasē.	•			
A-chā-yē.	•	. •		Ka-sā	• .			
A-ong-yĕ	• 2		ં.	In-sung	•		•:	

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Pürüm (Manipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).	English.
Ma-namai	A-sē-nū	A-namai	53. Wife.
Ūngā	Amo charā	Кото	54. Child.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-bā	Sēn-pā charā	A-chā-pā	55. Son.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū	Sē-nū charā	A-chā-nū	56. Daughter.
A-sú	Mi-nai	A-sarāworr	57. Slave.
Laŭ-ēbā	Shiwē	Laŭ kū-nūm mi	58. Cultivator.
Yāo-sēl-bā	Yāo shēl-mā mi	Yāo ka-sēl mi	59. Shepherd.
Thāirū	Lē	Lāi	60. God.
Rihirhā (ghost)	Ditto	Lē-ka-long	61. Devil.
Ni	A-ni	Ki-ni	62. Sun.
Lhā • • • •	Thā	Thā	63. Moon.
Ārsi	Būtsha	Būrsi	64. Star.
Mai	Mhi	Mai	65. Fire.
Tūi	Dā	Di	66. Water.
In	Ēm, in	În	67. House.
Sakorr	Sakol	Sakol	68. Horse.
Sil	Shal	Sil	69. Cow.
Ŭi	Wi	Ŭi	70. Dog.
Hautong	Yotē	Yomē	71. Cat.
Ār-hong-pā	Hal	Harr	72. Cock.
Ār-tok	Ngānū	Ngānā	73. Duck.
Gādhā	Gādhā	Gādhā	74. Ass.
Ŭŧ	Ūt	Űt	75. Camel.
A-wā	Pāhā · · · ·	Pa-wā	76. Bird.
Theng	I-chē	Chēt-pā	77. Go.
A-bāk	Ka-chā-mang	A-chā · · ·	78. Eat.
	Wong-wā	Yūko-ong	79. Sit.

	English.			Rängkhöl (Cachar).	Halläm (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
80	. Come .			Höng-rö	Hong-ro, or hō-ro	Hong-nā
81	. Beat			Vō-rō, jēm-rō	Jem-ro	Hem-nā
82	Stand .			Darhai-rō (nī-rō)	In-thoi-rol, or In-ding-ro .	Ngir-nā
83	Die			Tī-rō	Thi-ro	Thi-nā
84	. Give .			Pē-rō	Pē-ro	Pek-nā
85	Run .	•	•	Ā-rōt-rō	Tān-ro	Tlai-nā
86	Up.	٠	•	Ā-jūng-ting	Chung-a	Chung
87	. Near			Ā-nai	Ānāi-teng (or ānāigh) .	Ā-nāigh
88.	Down .	•		Ā-shūk-ting	Noyā, or thoy-ā	Nai-ā
89	Far			Ā-lhā	Ālāk, (or allāk)	Alla
90.	Before .	•	•	Muthanā (mā-tōn-ā).	Mā-ton (or man-theng) .	Mā-teug
91.	Behind .			Ā-nūng, ā-nūng-ting .	Nūk-ā (or nūk-teng)	Nung-teng
92.	Who .	٠	•	Tū-mō	Tū, or tū-mâ	Tű-må
93.	What .	•	•	Ī-mō	Ī-mâ	Ī-mā
94.	Why .	٠	•	Itiroiā (ī-mā-nī)	Hā-ong-mâ (or i-rang-mâ).	Ī-dhing-mâ
95.	And .	•			Hā-nūk-chū (or nūk-chū) .	Chūn
96.	But	•	•	Dārō	Ā-nūk-chū, or imoti-le-chū	Chūn
97.	If	•	•	*** 344	Jodi ²	Chữn
98.	Yes .	•	•	На (оћ)	Â	Â, or ā-chang
99.	No	•		Ūmuk (ō-māk)	Heë (or mang)	Å-ai, or chang-nå
100.	Alas .	•		Hējō	Āh-āh (or a-pam)	A-pam
101.	A father .			Ā-pā; my father, ga-pā; your father, nē-pā; his	Pā in-khāt-ā	Pā
102.	Of a father			father, ā-pā. (G)a-pā-mō	Pā in-khāt-ā	Pā-tā
103.	To a father			(G)a-pā-kā	Pā in-khāt kom (or neng-ā)	Pā neng-ā
104.	From a father	•		(G)a-pā-lē, (g)a-pā-tāk jūnga.	Pā in-khāt tātā (or rūsi) .	Pā rū-ai
105.	Two fathers	•	•	Ā-pā innī	Pā in-ni-kā . ŗ, .	Pā ni-kā.
106.	Fathers .		•	(G)a-pā-hai	Pā-ngāi-hā (or pā-ngāi) '.	Pā-hēi ?

Lit. arise from a seat.
 A Bengali word.

Ni-mā E-kā-nū	Aimol (M	anipur).	Chiru (Manipur).	
A-ngir Ā-ding A-thi Ā-thi A-pēk-yoi Pē-ro A-tān Ā-tān A-tān Ā-tān A-sak-tēng Alling A-nāi Thāng-tēng A-lāk Āllāk Ka-ma-ton Ka-māi-kūng Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk Tū-mo I-mo I-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to tha root of a verb). Pakhālo Ditto Atū Â Ŏ (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Kū-nū (The word 'mother or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat ding	A-yong .				Ā-hong
A-thi Ā-thi A-pēk-yoi Pē-ro A-tān Ā-tān A-tān Ā-tān A-sak-tēng Alling A-nāi Thāng-tēng A-lāk Āllāk Ka-māi-kūng Kā-nūk Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk Tū-mo Tū-mo I-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to tha root of a verb). Pakhālo Ditto Atū Ā. Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Kū-nū (The word 'mother or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). Ka-pā ankhat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat ding	A-vē .				Ā-jēm
A-pēk-yoi Pē-ro A-tān Ā-tān A-sak-tēng Alling A-nāi A-nāi Thāng-tēng Thāng-tēng A-lāk Āllāk Ka-māi-kūng Kā-nūk Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk Tū-mo I-mo I-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb). Pakhālo Ditto Atū Â Ŏ (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Kū-nū (The word 'mother' or 'father' is uttered texpress pity or grief). Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat ding	A-ngir .				Ã-ding
A-tān Ā-tān A-sak-tēng Alling A-nāi A-nāi Thāng-tēng Thāng-tēng A-lāk Āllāk Ka-māi-kūng Kā-nūk Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk Tū-mo Tū-mo I-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb). Pakhālo Ditto Atū Ā Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Kū-nū (The word 'mother or 'father' is uttered texpress pity or grief). Ka-pā ankhat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat ding	A-thi .				Ā-thi
A-sak-tēng Alling A-nāi A-nāi Thāng-tēng Thāng-tēng A-lāk Āllāk Ka-ma-ton Ka-māi-kūng Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk Tū-mo Tū-mo I-mo I-mo Iraihi-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb). Atū Ditto Atū Â Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Kū-nū (The word 'mother or 'father' is uttored to express pity or grief). Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat ding	A-pēk-yoi				Pē-ro
A-nāiyoi	A-tān .	٠.			Ā-tān
Thăng-tēng	A-sak-teng				Alling
A-lāk Āllāk Ka-ma-ton Ka-māi-kūng Ka-nūk . Tū-mo Tū-mo I-mo I-mo Iraihi-mo I-ranga-mo Khanakhanako Tanā (a termination) Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb). Pakhālo Ditto Atū Â Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā Ni-mā E-kā-nū Kū-nū (The word 'mother or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat dingā	A-nāiyoi .				A-nāi
Ka-ma-ton	Thang-teng		•		Thăng-tēng
Ka-nūk-tiēng Kā-nūk	A-lāk ,				Āllāk
Tū-mo	Ka-ma-ton				Ka-māi-kūng
I-mo Iraihi-mo Iraihi-mo I-ranga-mo I-ranga-	Ka-nük-tiēng		٠		Kā-nūk
Iraihi-mo	Тй-то .	٠	•		Тй-то
Khanakhanako	I-mo				I-mo
Ko (it is always suffixed to the root of a verb). Ditto	Iraihi-mo	٠	•		I-ranga-mo
the root of a verb). Ditto Atū Ö (sounds like 'o' in 'on') Ni-mā E-kā-nū Kū-nū (The word 'mother' or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat A-pā khat Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat ding Ka-pā khat dingā	Khanakhanak	0	•		Tanā (a termination) .
Â	Ko (it is alwa the root of a	ys su verb).	ffixed	to	Pakhālo
Ni-mā E-kā-nū Kū-nū (The word 'mother' or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). Ka-pā khat A-pā khat-ningko Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat Ka-pā khat ding A-pā khat-yēng jagin Ka-pā khat dingā	Ditto		•		Atū
E-kā-nū	Â	٠			Ŏ (sounds like 'o' in 'on').
or 'father' is uttered to express pity or grief). A-pā khat-ningko	Ni-mä .	•			Ni-mā
A-pā ankhat Ka-pā khat	E-kā-nū .	• .	•		Ku-nu (The word 'mother' or 'father' is uttered to
A-pā khat-yēng Ka-pā khat ding . A-pā khat-yēng jagin . Ka-pā khat dingā .	A-pā ankhat	•	•		Ka-pā khat
A-pā khat-yēng jagin . Ka-pā khat dingā .	A-pā khat-nin	igko	•		Ka-pā khat
	A-pā khat-yēr	g	•		Ka-pā khat ding
A-pā anni Ka-pā a-di	A-pā khat-yēr	og jag	in		Ka-pā khat dingā .
	А-ра аппі	٠			Ka-pā a-di
A-pā ngāi Ka-pā hāi	A-pā ngāi .	•	•	•	Ka-pā hāi

Kolrēn (Manipur).	Köm (Manipur).
A-wā-yē	. Ka-hōng
A-wēl-yē	. Wŭk
A-nirr-yē	Ngir
A-thi-yē	Ka-thiyō
А-рё	. Ka-pē
A-tān-yē	· Ka-tān
A-sak	. Sak
A-nai-tak-ā	. Ka-nhāi
Thang-tiyēng	Thai
A-lāk	. Ka-lhā
A-mā-tiyēng	A-mhā
A-nung-tiyeng.	Ka-ka-nhūng
Khoy-ē-ni	Tū-mō
Ang-ē	Hāi-mō
Ang-sik-ē-ni	Hāi-lhai-yā-mō
Hāko	Khanchung
Amāko	Khanchū
To (a termination to be suffixed).	Yūwālēnchū (a termination)
(sounds like 'o' in 'of').	ō
li-mak	E-mak
ya-ka-nū	Ō a-nū
i-pā khat pā	Ka-pā in-khat
i-pā khat tā	Ka-pā in-khat
i-pā khat yiēng	Ka-pā in-khat-nhēng
i-pā khat yiēnga	Ka-pā in-khat-nhēng-ā
i-pā ki-ni	Ka-pā inhi
	Ka-pā ka-tam

Pūrūm (Manipur).					Augl (Manipur)	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).			English.		
Wā-tik					A-wā-wā			Arr-bāng .		-	80. Come.
Wēl					A-bū-mā			A-prai			81. Beat.
Ngir					Wa-rē-wā .			Jarip			82. Stand.
A-thi				٠.	Tha-kā			Ki-di-yā			83. Die.
Pē					Ка-рё			А-рі			84. Give.
A-tān					Chom-jā .			Ka-chēn-ā .			85. Run.
A-chūng					A-thā-hā			Tun-thang .			86. Up.
A-nāyā					Hūlā-hā			Ka-nāi-tēk .			87. Near.
Ā-thūyā					Ka-ti-hā.			Ti-thā			88. Down.
A-lā					Hai-so-wākā	• .		Lam-ka-lā .			89. Far.
Ma-mā					Ka-dū-hā .			A-dū-thang .			90. Before.
Ma-nū-wa	ā				Ka-thal-hā .			A-dil-thā			91. Behind.
A-tū					A-kū-ti			Ко			92. Who.
ī.					Dā-pā			Tā			93. What.
Iyē ajē					Dā-wa-wa-di .			Ta-ki			94. Why.
Nā-nā	•		•		Dāl dālū thi-mang			Ta-dā			95. And.
Nā-chū					Tū			Padāinū			96. But.
Yāū-lē-cl	nū.				Ni-bē			Tang (This is a term suffixed to the roo	inati t of	on a	97. If.
Ŏ (sound	s like	'o' i	n 'oj	").	Aing			verb). O (pronounced like 'on').	·0'	in	98. Yes.
Ā-nok	• .				Māi	,		Māng			99. No.
A-nū-wo					Nū-wā-pārāng.			А-пū а-ра .	٠		100. Alas.
Ma-pā a-l	khā				Ma-pā khē (his fath	er one)		A-pā khat			101. A father.
Ma-pā a-l	khā				Ma-pā khē .			A-pā khat hin-ki			102. Of a father.
Ma-pā a-l	khā n	ingā			Ma-pā khē kūng			A-pā khat hin-thā			103. To a father.
Ma-pā a-l	khā n	ingā	•		Ma-pā kbē kūnggi			A-pa khat hin-ki			104. From a father.
Ма-ра а-	ni				Ma-pā anhi .			A-pā ki-nī .	•		105. Two fathers.
Ma-pā a-t	am				Ma-pā hing .			A-pā ka-nēm-kat	. "		106. Fathers.

English.		Rāngkhōl (Cachar).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langroug (Hill Tipperah).
107. Of fathers .	•	(G)a-pā-hai-nī or -mō	Pā-ngāi-hā	Pā-hēi-tā
108. To fathers .		(G)a-pā-hai-kā.	Pā-ngāi kom	Pā-hēi-neng-ā
109. From fathers .		(G)a-pā-hai-jung-tak, āhai- tak.	Pā-ngāi tākā-tā	·
10. A daughter .	•	Nű-päng-tē	Nāi nū-pāng in-khāt-ā	Nū-pang
III. Of a daughter .		Nű-päng-tē-mō	Nāi nū-pāng in-khāt-ā	Nű-pang-tā
112. To a daughter .		Nű-pāng-tē-kā .	Nāi nū-pāng in-khāt kom .	Nű-pang-neng-ā .
113. From a daughter		Nű-päng-tak jűnga .	Nāi nū-pāng in-khāt tātā	•••••
114. Two daughters		Nű-pāng-hai-innī, nű-pāng hai-nī.	Nāi nū-pāng in-ni-kā .	Nű-pang inni-kā
115. Daughters .	•	Nű-pāng-hai	Nāi nū-pāng-ngāi-hā (or	Nū-pang-hēi
116. Of daughters .	•	Nū-pāng-hai-mō .	Nāi nū-pāng-ngāi-hā .	Nű-pang-héi-tā
117. To daughters .		Nű-pāng-hai-kā	Nāi nū-pāng-ngāi-kom .	Nū-pang-hēi-neng-ā .
18. From daughters		Nū-pāng-hai-jung-tak.	Nāi nū-pāng-ngāi-tākā-tā .	•••••
19. A good man .		Mi-riim āshā	. Pā-sāl khāt āssā	Mī tha
20. Of a good man.		Āshā mi-riim-mō .	. Pā-sāl khāt āssā	Mī ṭhā-tā
21. To a good man .		Āshā mi-riim-kā	. Pā-sāl khāt āssā-kom .	Mī ṭhā-neng-ā
22. From a good man	n ,	Āshā mi-riim-tak; ājung tak.	Pā-sāl khāt āssā-tātā	
23. Two good men .		Mi-riim āshā innī .	Pā-sāl in-nik āssā (or mi sā-n-ni-kā).	Mī thān-ni-kā
24. Good men .	•	Mi-riim-hai āshā .	Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi	Mī ṭhā-hēi
125. Of good men		Āshā mi-riim-hai-mō	. Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi	Mī ṭhā-hēi-tā
126. To good men		Āshā mi-riim-hai-kā	. Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi-kom .	Mī thā-hēi-neng-ā
127. From good men		Āshā mi-riim-hai-jung tak, -āhai-tak.	Pā-sāl āssā-ngāi tākā-tā .	
128. A good woman .		Nű-pāng āshā	. Nū-pāng khāt āssā	Nű-pang thã
129. A bad boy		Nai-të shā-māk	Nāi pā-sāl khāt āssiet (or sā-māk).	Nāi-pā ā-ṭhā-lai .
130. Good women		Nű-pāng-hai āshā .	. Nū-pāng āssā-ngāi	Nū-pang ṭhā-hēi .
131. A bad girl		Nű-päng-tē shā-māk .	Nāi nū-pāng khāt āssiet (or sā-lai)	Nāi-nū ṭhā-lai .
132. Good		Āshā (ā-sā)	. Āssā (or ā-sā)	Ā-ṭhā
133. Better .		Āshā (ā-sā-ōl)	Ā-mā nekin āssā	

Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
A-pā ngāi-inko	Ka-pā hāi
A-pā ngāi-yēng	Ka-pā hāi ding
A-pā ngāi-yēng-jagin	Ka-pā hāi dingā
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat .	Kū-sū-nū khat
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat-inko	Kū-sū-nū khat
A-nāi nūmai-nāi khat-yēng	Kū-sū-nū khat ding
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi khat-yēng- jagin.	Kū-sŭ-nū khat dingā .
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi anni .	Kū-sū-nū a-di
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi .	Kū-sū-nū hāi
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi-inko .	Kū-sū-nū hāi
A-nāi-nūmai-nāi ngāi-yēng .	Kū-sū-nū hāi ding
A-nāi-nūmai-nai ngāi-yēng- jagin.	Kū-sū-nū hāi dingā
Pasal a-sā khat	A-pā a-tha-pā khat
Pasal a-sā khat-inko	A-pā a-tha-pā khat
Pasal a-sā khat-yēng .	A-pā a-tha-pā khat ding .
Pasal a-sā khat-yēng-jagin.	A-pā a-tha-pā khat dingā .
Pasal a-sā anni	A-pā a-thā a-di
A-sāi pasal ngāi	A-pā a-tha-rūk
A-sāi pasal ngāi-inko .	A-pā a-tha-rūk
A-sāi pasal ngāi-yēng .	A-pā a-tha-rūk ding
A-sāi pasal ngāi-yēng-jagin	A-pā a-tha-rūk dingā .
A-sā nūmai khat .	Nū-pāng a-thā khat
Sa-mak pasal nāi khat	Pa-sa-nāi a-thā-būi khat .
A-sāi nūmai ngāi .	Nű-pāng hāi a-tha-rūk .
Sa-mak nümai näi khat	Nū-pāng-nāi a-thā-būi khat
A-sā, a-sāi	A-thā
Anni nēgā a-sā .	-A-di kārā a-thā
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Kolrēn (Manipur).	Köm (Manipur).
Ki-pā an-tam-tā	Ka-pā ka-tam
Ki-pā an-tam yiēng	Ka-pā ka-tam-nhēng.
Ki-pā an-tam yiēngā	Ka-pā ka-tam-nhēng-ā
Ki-cha-nū khat	Ka-sā-nū in-khat
Ki-cha-nű khat-tä	Ka-sā-nū in-khat
Ki-cha-nū khat yiēng .	Ka-sā-nū in-khat-nhēng .
Ki-cha-nū khat yiēngā .	Ka-sā-nū in-khat-nhēng-ā
Ki-cha-nū ki-ni	Ka-sā-nű inhi
Ki-cha-nŭ an-tam	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam
Ki-cha-nū an-tam-tā.	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam
Ki-cha-rū an-tam yiēng .	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam-nhēng .
Ki-cha-nū an-tam yiēngā .	Ka-sā-nū ka-tam-nhēng-a .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat-tā .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat .
Pasal-pā a-sā khat yieng .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat-nhēng
Pasal-pā a-sā khat yiēngā .	A-ka-thā pasē in-khat- nhēng-ā.
Pasal-pā a-sā ki-ni	A-ka-thā pasē inhi
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam .	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam .
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam-tā .	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam yiēng	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam-nhēng
Pasal-pā a-sā an-tam yiēngā	A-ka-thā pasē ka-tam- nhēng-ā.
Nūmai a-sā khat	A-ka-thā numhai in-khat .
Sā-mak nāi-tēdē khat .	Tha-mak pasē nāi-pang-pā in-khat.
Nūmai a-sā an-tam	A-ka-thā nữmhai ka-tam .
Sā-mak nūmai-tēdē khat .	Tha-mak nūmhai nāi-pang- nū in-khat.
А-sā	A-ka-thā
A-mā ē kin-ko a-mā sā-dēt	Inhi-ā ka-thak
- I	

Pürüm (Manipur).	Aust (Manipur).	Hiroi-Lamgäng (Manipur).	English.
Ma-pā a-tam	Ma-pā hing	A-pā ka-nēm-kat-ki	107. Of fathers.
Ma-pā a-tam ningā	Ma-pā hing kūng	A-pā ka-nēm-hin-thā .	108. To fathers.
Ma-pā a-tam ningā	Ma-pā hing kūng-gi	A-pā ka-nēm-hin-ki	109. From fathers.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-khā	Sē-nű chara khē	A-chā-nū khat	110. A daughter.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-khā.	Sē-nū charā khē	A-chā-nū khat-ki	111. Of a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-khā ningā.	Sē-nū charā khē kūng .	A-chā-nū khat hin-thā .	112. To a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-khā ningā.	Sē-nū charā khē kūng-gi .	A-chā-nǔ khat hin-ki .	113. From a daughter.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nű a-ni	Sē-nū charā anhi	A-chā-nū ki-nī	114. Two daughters.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-tam	Sē-nū charā hing	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat .	115. Daughters.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-tam	Sē-nū charā hing	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-ki	116. Of daughters.
Ma-sa-nāŭ-nū a-tam ningā.	Sē-nū charā hing kūng .	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-hin- thā.	117. To daughters.
Ma-sa-nāū-nū a-tam ningā.	Sē-nū charā hing kūng-gi .	A-chā-nū ka-nēm-kat-hin-ki	118. From daughters.
A-pā arrhā a-khā	Ithā sēn-pā khē	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat .	119. A good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā	Ithā sēn-pā khē	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-ki	120. Of a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā khē kūng .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-hin-thā	121. To a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-khā ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā khē kūng-gi	Pasēl-pā ka-thā khat-hin-ki	122. From a good man.
A-pā arrhā a-ni	Ithā sēn-pā anhi	Pasēl-pā ka-thā kinī.	123. Two good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam	Ithā sēn-pā hing	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt	124. Good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam	Ithā sēn-pā hing	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt-ki	125. Of good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā hing kūng .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt hin-thā	126. To good men.
A-pā arrhā a-tam ningā .	Ithā sēn-pā hing kūng-gi .	Pasēl-pā ka-thā-rēt hin-ki .	127. From good men.
Vamai arrhā a-khā	Ithā sē-nū khē	Si-nū ka-thā khat	128. A good woman.
A-pā-tē ha-no a-khā	Tha-mi sēn-pā charā khē	Pasēl na-chā ka-thā-ka-mā khat.	129. A bad boy.
Vamai arrhā a-tam	Ithā sē-nū hing	Si-nū ka-thā-rēt	130, Good women.
Namai-të ha-no a-khā	Tha-mi sē-nū charā khē	Si-nű na-chā ka-thā-ka-mā khat.	131. A bad girl.
Arrhā	Ithā	Ka-thā	132, Good.
A-mo-nā arrhā-tik-ti	Ama-nhi chākē amā-hi thakā	Khat ka-thā-sēt	133. Better.

	Engl	ish.			Rängkhöl (Cachar).	Hallām (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
34.	Best		• .		Ārenging āshā (ā-sā-tāk) .	Āssā uol	
35.	High	•			Āshēi	Ān-sāng	Ān-sang
36.	Higher				Ditto with genitive case .	Āmā nekin ān-sāng	
37.	Highest	•			Ārenging āshēi	Ān-sāng uol, or ān-reng-in nek-ā ān-sāng.	 .
38.	A horse		•	•		Sā-kor ā-chal khāt	Sā-kor chal
39.	A mare				Hindostānī words used,	Sā-kor ā-nū-pāng khāt (or sā-kor-pūi).	Sā-kor-pūi
40.	Horses	•			plural -hai.	Sā-kor ā-chal-ngāi	Sā-kor-chal-hēi .
41.	Mares				J (Sā-kor ā-nū-pāng-ngāi .	Sā-kor-pūi-hēi
42.	A bull				Shērhā-jāl (shērhāt-ā-jāl) .	Serāt ā-chal khāt	Se-rāt chal
43.	A cow				Shērhā-nū (shērhāt ā-nū- pāng).	Serāt ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt.	Se-rāt pūi
44.	Bulls				Shērhā-jāl-hai	Serāt ā-chal-ngāi	Se-rāt chal-hēi.
15.	Cows				Shērhā-nű-hai	Serāt ā-nū-pāng-ngāi .	Se-rāt pūi-hēi
16.	A dog	·			Ŭi	Ūi ā-chal khāt	Wūi chal
47 .	A bitch				Űi-nű	Ŭi ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt	Wāi pāi
18.	Dogs				Ūi-hai	Ūi ā-chal ngāi	Wūi chal-hēi
19.	Bitches		•		Ŭi-nū-hai	Ūi ā-nū-pāng ngāi	Wūi pūi-hēi
50.	A he goat				Gēl-jāl	Kēl ā-chal khāt	Kel chal
51.	A female	goat			Gēl-nű	Kēl ā-nū-pāng (or pūi) khāt	Kel pūi
52.	Goats				Gēl-hai	Kēl-ngāi	Kel hēi
53.	A male de	er	•		All deer have different names. Sambhur=shājū	Ā-jūk ā-chal khāt	Sā-jūk chal
54.	A female	deer	•		(sā-jūk); barking deer =shākhi (sā-kī); if male is required, -jāl is made the	Ā-jūk ā-nū-pāng (or pūi)	Sā-jūk pūi
55.	Deer		:		suffix; if female has to be expressed, -nū is the suffix.	Ā-jūk	Sā-jūk hēi
56.	I am		•		Gē(mā) ā-ōm, gē-ōm, gēnī ōm.	Kei kā om, or kā om¹ .	Kai-mā om, or kai om
57.	Thou art	•			Nang-mā nē-ōm	Nang nā om, or nā om .	Nang-mā om, or nāy om
8.	He is	•	•		Ā-mā ā-ōm	Ā-mā ā om, or ā om .	Āni om, or ā om .
59.	We are	•	•		Gē-mā-hai gin-hōm	Kei-ni kān-ā-om	Kai-mā-ni om, or kāin-om
60.	You are				Nangni nin-hōm, nin-ōm	Nang-ni nānā om	Nang-mā-ni om, or nāin o

 $^{^{1}}$ Om means to be, to remain. The verb substantive is chang.

Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
Andrēngā kāra asā	Wānūi nig-a a-thā
A-sanga	Arrshäng
Anni nēgā a-sānga	A-di kārā arrshāng .
Andreng-ā kāra a-sanga .	Wānūi nigā arrshāng
Sēkor achal khat	Sakorr chā khat
Sēkor apūi khat	Sakorr a-nū-pang khat .
Sēkor achal tam	Sakorr chā a-tām-pūi
Sēkor apūi tam	Sakorr a-nū-pāng a-tām-pūi
Sērāt achal khat .	Shi chā khat
Sērāt apūi khat	Shi a-nū-pāng khat .
Sērāt achal tam	Shi chā a-tām-pūi
Sērāt apūi tam	. Shi a-nū-pāng a-tām-pūi .
Ūi achal khat	. Üi chā khat
Ŭi apūi khat	. Üi a-nü-päng khat
Ūi chal tam	Üi chā a-tām-pūi
Ūi apūi tam	. Ūi a-nū-pāng a-tām-pūi .
Kēl chal khat	. Kē chā khát
Kēl apūi khat	. Kē a-nū-pāng khat
Kēl chal tam	. Kē ā-rop
Sangāi chal khat	. Sangāi chā khat
Sangāi apūi khat .	. Sangāi a-nū-pāng khat .
Sangāi	. Sangāi
Kai-ka-ni	. Kai a-ni-lāi
Nang na-ni	. Nang a-ni-lāi
Amā a-ni	. A-mā a-ni-lāi
Kai-ni ka-ni	. Kai-kā a-ni-lāi
Nang-ni na-ni .	. Nang-ni nang-ni-lāi .
	KC. G.—313

Kolrên (Manipur).	Köm (Manipur).
A-tam kārā a-sā-ko a-mā a-s	ā A-ka-tam-ā ka-thak
A-sāng	Ānsāng
A-mā ē kin-ko a-mā sāng-dē	t Inhi-ā ānsāng
A-tam kārā a-sāng-ko a-mā a-sāng.	A-ka-tam-ā ānsāng .
Sakorr chal khat	. Sakor chē inkhat
Sakorr a-pi khat	Sakōr apūi inkhat
Sakorr chal an-tam	Sakör chē ka-tam
Sakorr a-pi an-tam	Sakōr pūi ka-tam
Sērāt chal khat	Sërhāt chē inkhat
Sērāt a-pi khat	Sērhāt apūi inkhat
Sērāt chal an-tam	Sërhāt chē ka-tam
Sērāt a-pi an-tam	Sērhāt apūi ka-tam
Ūi tang khat	Ūi chē inkhat
Ŭi pi khat	Ūi pūi inkhat
Ūi tang an-tam	Űi chẽ ka-tam .
Ŭi pi an-tam	Űi pūi ka-tam
Kēl chal khat	Kē chē inkhat
Kēl pi khat	Kē apūi inkhat.
Kēl an-tam	Kē ka-tam
Sangāi chal khat	Sangāi chē inkhat
Sangāi a-pi khat	Sangāi apūi inkhat
Sangāi	Sangāi
Kai ki-la-chang	Kai ka-chang
Nang ni-la-chang	Nang ka-chang
A-mā a-la-chang	Amā ka-chang
Kai-ni kin-la-chang	Kaini ka-chang
Nang-ni nin-la-chang	Nang-ni ka-chang-chai
KC. G.—314	

Pūrūm (Manipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).	English.
A-tam kārā mo-nā arrhā-tik- ti.	Hūyā pāng kālhi thakā .	Ma-mā ka-thā-sēt	134. Best.
Sāng-ē	Sāng-gā	Ka-sāng	135. High.
A-ni kārā nā-pāi sāng-tik .	Ama-nhi chākē amā-hi sāng-gā.	Khat ka-sāng-sēt	136. Higher.
A-tam kārā mo-nā sāng- tik-ti.	Hūyā pāng kālhi sāng-gā .	Ma-mā ka-sāng-sēt	137. Highest.
Sakorr a-pā a-khā . ,	Sakol patal khē	Sakol pā khat	138. A horse.
Sakorr namai a-khā	Sakol a-nű khē	Sakol nū khat	139. A mare.
Sakorr a-pā a-tam	Sakol patal hing	Sakol pā ka-nēm-kat	140. Horses.
Sakorr namai a-tam	Sakol a-nū hing	Sakol nű ka-nēm-kat	141. Mares.
Sil chal-pā a-khā	Shal patal khē	Sil pā khat	142. A bull.
Sil a-mai a-khā	Shal a-nű khē	Sil nữ khát	143. A cow.
Sil chal-pā a-tam	Shal patal hing	Sil pā ka-nēm-kat	144. Bulls.
Sil a-mai a-tam	Shal a-nū hing	Sil nū ka-nēm-kat	145. Cows.
Ūi tang-pā a-khā	Wi patal khē	Ūi pā khat	146. A dog.
Ūi bi-nū a-khā	Winūkhē	Ūi nū khat	147. A bitch.
Ūi tang-pā a-tam	Wi patal hing	Ūi pā ka-nēm-kat	148. Dogs.
Ūi bi-nū a-tam	Wi nu hing	Ūi nū ka-nēm-kat	149. Bitches.
Kēl chal-pā a-khā	Kēl patal khē	Kēl pā khat	150. A he goat.
Kēl pi-nū a-khā	Kēl nữ khở	Kēl nū khat	151. A female goat.
Kël chal-pā a-tam	Kēl nhim-kā	Kēl pā ka-nēm-kat	152. Goats.
Sangāi chal-pā a-khā	Chaksha patal khē	Sangāi pā khat	153. A male deer.
Sangāi pi-nū a-khā	Chaksha nu khē	Sangāi nū khat	154. A female deer.
Sangāi	Chaksha	Sangāi	155. Deer.
Kai chang	Ni thiū-ga-ni	Nai ka-thok-nū	156. I am.
Nang chang	Nang thiū-ga-ti	Nang ka-thok-ni	157. Thou art.
Mo-na chang	Amā thiū-kā	Ma-mā ka-thok-nā	158. He is.
Ka-ni chang	Ni-hing thiū-ga-ni	Nain ka-thok-nū	159. We are.
Nangai chang	Nang-hing thiū-ga-ti	Nangan-jū ka-thok-ngan .	160. You are.

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English.	Rängkhöl (Cachar).	Halläm (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
161. They are	Āmā-hai ā-ōm	Ān-ni ānā om	Ān-mā-ni om, or ān-in-om .
162. I was	Gē-ōm-tā	Kei kā ni	,
163. Thou wast	Nang nē-ōm-tā	Nang nā ni	
164. He was	Āmā ā-ōm-tā	Ā-mā ā-ni	**************************************
165. We were	Gēni-hai gē-ōm-tā	Kei-ni kānā ni	1
166. You were	Nangni nin-ōm-tā	Nang-ni nānā ni	
167. They were	Āmā-hai ā-ōm-tā	Ān-ni ānā ni	
168. Be	Ōш	Om-ro	Om-nā
169. To be	Ōmrāng	Om-rang, or om-na	Om-nā-ding
170. Being	Ā-5m-ma	Om-ā	От-та
171. Having been	Ōm-tā	Om-ā	
172. I may be	Gē ōm-tē-rāng	Kei kā om-thei	Kai om-thēi
173. I shall be	Gēmā ōm-rāng	Kei om kā-ţī	Kai om-ding
174. I should be	Gē-ōm-tē	Kei kā om-rāng-in ā om	
175. Beat	Jēm-rō	Jem-ro or hem-ro	Thūk-nā
176. To beat	Jem-rang	Jem-rāng (or jem-nā-rāng)	Thūk-nā-ding
177. Beating	Jēm-mā	Jem-ā	<u>Th</u> ūk-ā
178. Having beaten	Ā-jēm-tā	Jem-ā	
179. I beat	Gē-jēm	Kei kā jem	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk
180. Thou beatest	Nē-jēm	Nang nā jem	Nang-mā <u>th</u> ūk
181. He beats	Ā-jēm	Ā-mā ā jem	Ā-ni <u>th</u> ūk
182. We beat	.Gē-mā-hai gē-jēm	Kei-ni kān jem	Kai-mā-ni <u>th</u> ūk
183. You beat	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm	Nang-ni nān jem	Nang-mā-ni <u>th</u> ūk
184. They beat	Āmā-hai ā-jēm	Ān-ni ān jem	Ān-mā-ni <u>th</u> ūk
185. I beat (Past Tense) .	Gē-jēm-tā	(Kei-mān kā jem-rang) .	Kai-mān kē hem-tā
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).	Nang nē-jēm-tā	(Nang jem-rang)	Nang-mān nā hem-tā
187. He beat (Past Tonse) .	Āmā ā-jēm-tā	(Ā-ni ān jem-rang)	Ā-ni ān hem-tā
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Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur),
An-mā-ni an-chang	A-mā-ni a-ni-lāi
Kai ka-chang-yoi	Kai kā-ni
Nang na-chang-yoi	Nang nang-ni
Amā a-chang-yoi	Amā-ni
Kai-ni ka-chang-yoi	Kai-ni kā-ni
Nang-ni na-chang-yoi	Nang-ni nang-ni
An-mā-ni an-chang-yoi .	A-mā-ni a-ni-lāyā
An-ni-yoi	Ni (Imperative form is ni-rū).
Chang-rang	A-tha: na-rāngā
Ka-chang-ā	A-ni-na-wo-lā
Ka-chang-yoi-yā	A-ni-dalā
Kai ka-chang ayot	. Kai kā-ni-yom a-yoi .
Kai changin ka-ti	Kai ni-rang-kan
Kai-changin ka-ti	Ditto
A-vē	A-jēm
A-vē-na-rang	A-jēm-na-rāng-ā
A-vē-yā	A-jem-da-nā
A-vē-yoi-yā	Ditto
Kai-in ka-vē	. Kai-nā ka-jēm
Nang-in na-vē	. Nang-nā nang-jēm
A-mān a-vē	. А-та-па а-јет
Kai-ni[n] kan-vē	. Kai-ni-nā ka-jēm
Nang-nin nana-vē .	Nang-ni-nā nang-jēm .
A-mā-nin ana-vē	. A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm
Kai ka-vē-yoi	. Kai-nā ka-jēm-yoi
Nang na-vē-yoi .	. Nang-nā nang-jēm-yoi
A-mān a-vē-yoi	. A-mā-nā a-jem-yoi
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	An-mā-ni ka-chang-hai
Kai ki-lai-chang-chang . I	Kai kailē ka-chang-ē
Nang ni-lai-chang-chang .	Nang kalai ka-chang-chē .
Amā a-lai-chang-chang .	Amā alai ka-chang
Kai-ni kin-lai-chang-chang	Kai-ni lai-ka-chang-ũng .
Nang-ni nin-lai-chang-chang	Nang-ni lai-ka-chang-chi .
An-mā-ni an-lai-chang- A	An-mā-ni alai-ka-chang-ai .
	Ka-chang
Chang-sik-a-ni.	hang-sikā
Chang-lēyā K	Ca-chang-ā
Ditto K	a-chang-yo-ā
Kai ki-chang-chak K	Tai ka-chang ka-thā .
Kai changing kē-tā K	ai ka-chang sēng
Kai changing kē-tā	Ditto
A-ni-wēl W	7ŭk
Ni-wēl-sik-a-ti W	7ūk-sikā
Wēl-ā K	a-wūk-ā
Wēl-ā	a-wūk-yo-ā
Kain ki-wēl Ka	ain ka-wūk
Nang-in ni-wēl	ang-in na-wūk
A-mān a-ni-wēl An	mān a-wūk
Kai-nin kin-wēl Ka	ai-nin kan-wük
Nang-nin nina-wēl Na	ang-nin nan-wük
An-mā-nin ana-wēl An	n-mā-nin an-wük
Kain ki-wēl-yai Ka	ain ka-wūk-yō
Nang-in ni-wēl-yai Na	ang-in na-wūk-yō
A-mān a-wēl-yai An	nān a-wūk-yō

Pürüm (Manipur).		Anāl (Manipor).	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).	English.
Ma-nin chang	•	Amā-hing thiūkā	Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā .	161. They are.
Kai-in chang füring .		Ni thiũndã	Nai ka-thok-nū	162. I was.
Nang-in chang füring		Nang bē thiūndēndā.	Nang ka-thok-paktē .	163. Thou wast.
Mo-na chang fūring .		A-mā hē thiūkā	Ma-māng ka-thok-dā .	164. He was.
Ka-ni chang füring .		Ni-hing thiunda	Nain ka-thok-nū	165. We were.
Nangai chang füring.		Nang-hing thiundenda .	Nangin ka-thok-ngan-ti-nū	166. You were.
Ma-nin chang füring		A-mā-hing thiūkā	Ma-mān ka-thok-lam-dā .	167. They were.
Chang		Ithiū-bā	Ka-thok	168. Be.
Chang-ang		Ithiū-narā	Korthok-rā	169. To be.
Chang-ang-nong .		Thungu-nu	Korthok-dā	170. Being.
Chang-ang-nong .		Thiū-nū	Korthok-riyaŭ-dā	171. Having been.
Kai-ko ka-chang arhā		Ni ithiū pa-ngam	Nai-kā ka-thūk-ma-rūwā .	172. I may be.
Kai chang-ang		Ni thiũng-ga-ni	Nai ka-thūk-ni-ka-di	173. I shall be.
Ditto .		Ditto	Ditto	174. I should be.
Wēl	-	Ibon-bā	A-prai	175. Beat.
A-wēl-ang		Ibon-narā	Ta-prai-narā	176. To beat.
Wēl-a		Ka-būnā-dē	Pa-rai-dā	177. Beating.
Ditto		Ka-būnā-dē	Pa-rai-riyaū-dā	178. Having beaten.
Kai-nā wēl-ā		Ni ka-bon-wal	Nai ka-prai	179. I beat.
Nang-nā wēl-ā		Nang a-bon-wal . ,.	Nang ka-prai	180. Thou beatest.
Mo-nā wēl-ā . ,		A-mā a-bon-wal	Ma-mā ka-prai	181. He beats.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-ā.		Ni-hing ka-bon-mang .	Nain ka-prai	182. We beat.
Nangai-nā wēl-ā		Nang-hing ka-bon-dēndā .	Nangin ka-prai	183. You beat.
Ma-ni-nā wēl-ā	•	A-mā-hing kiyē-nū	Ma-mān ka-prai	184. They beat.
Kai-nā wēl-piyang .		Ni kē-wal	Naiyā ka-prai-yā	185. I beat (Past Tense).
Nang-nā wēl-piyaū-chē		Nang ki-ta-nū	Nang a-prai-yā	186. Thou beatest (Past
Mo-nā wēl-piyaū .		A-mā ki-nū	Ma-māng ma-prai-yā	187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.	Rāngkhōl (Cachar).	Hallam (Sylbet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
188. We beat (Past Tense) .	Gē-mā-hai gē-jēm-tā .	(Kei-nin kāin jem-rang) .	Kai-mā-ni kāin hem-tā
189. You beat (Past Tense)	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm-tā .	(Nāng-ni nāin jem-rang) .	Nang-mā-ni nāin hem-tā .
190. They beat (Past Tense)	Āmā-hai ā-jēm-tā	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in jem-rang)	An-mā-ni ān-in hem-tā
191. I am beating	Gē-jēm	Kei kā lā-jem-bāng	····
192. I was beating	Gē-jēm-tā	Kei kā lā-jem-bāng	·
193. I had beaten	Gē-jēm-tā	Kei kā jem	···········
194. I may beat	Gē-jēm-tē	Kei kā jem-thei	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk-thēi
195. I shall beat	Gē-jēm-rāng	Kei jem kā-tī	Kai-mā <u>th</u> ūk-ding
196. Thou wilt beat	Nang nē-jēm-rāng	(Nang jem-ding)	Nang-mān hem-ding.
197. He will beat	Āmā ā-jēm-rāng	(Āni ān jem-ding)	Ā-ni ān hem-ding
198. We shall beat	Gē-mā-hai gē-jēm-rāng .	(Kei-nin kāin jem-ding)	Kai-mā-ni kāin hem-ding .
199. You will beat	Nang-mā-hai nē-jēm-rāng .	(Nang-ni nāin jem-dīng) .	Nang-mā-ni nāin hem-ding
200. They will beat	Āmā-hai ā-jēm-rāng .	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in jem-ding)	Ān-mā-ni ān-in hem-ding .
201. I should beat	Gē-jēm-tē-rāng	Kei kā jem-rāng-in ā om .	
202. I am beaten	Gē-jēm-fāk	Kei ān ā jem	,
203. I was beaten	Gē-jēm fāk-tā	Kei ān ā jem	
204. I shall be beaten .	Gē-jēm fāk-rāng	Kei nā-jem-ā-tī	·
205. I go	Gē-phē (gē-fē)	Kei kā sē	Kai-mā kāl
206. Thou goest	Nang nē-phē	Nang nā sē	Nang-mā kāl
207. He goes	Āmā ā-phē	Ā-māāsē	Ā-ni kāl
208. We go	. Gē-mā-hai gē-phē	(Kèi-nin kāin kāî)	Kai-mā-ni kāl
209. You go	Nang-mā-hai nē-phē .	(Nang-ni sē)	Nang-mā-ni kāl
210. They go	Āmā-hai ā-phē	(Ān-mā-ni ān sē)	Ān-mā-ni ān kāl
211. I went	Gē-phē-tā	Kei kā sē-jei	
212. Thou wentest .	Nang nē-phē-tā	Nang nā sē-jei	
213. He went	Āmā ā-phē-tā	Āmā ā sē-jei	
214. We went	. Gē-mā-hai gē-phē-tā	(Kai-mā-ni kāin sē-tā)	Kai-mā-ni kāin kāl-tā
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Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
Kai-ni kan-vē-yoi .	Kai-ni-nā ka-jēm-yoi
Nang-ni nana-vē-yoi	Nang-ni-nā nang-jēm-yoi .
A-mā-nin ana-vēyoi .	A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-yoi .
Kai ka-la-vē	Kai-nā ka-jēm-lāi
Kai ka-lai-vē	Ditto
Kai ka-vē-yoi	Kai-nā kā-jēm-yoi
Kai ka-vē a-yot	Kai-nā ka-jēm-om-a-tha .
Kai-in vēng-ka-ti	Kai-nā a-jēm-rang
Nang-in vēng-na-ti	Nang-nā a-jēm-rang-nang-ni
A-mā-in vēng-a-ti	A-mā-nā a-jēm-rang .
Kai-ni vēng-kan-ti	Kai-ni-nā a-jēm-rang .
Nang-ni na-vē-rang	Nang-ni-nā a-jēm-rang- nang-ni.
A-mā-nin ana-vē-raug .	A-mā-ni-nā a-jēm-raso
Kai-in vēng-ka-ti	Kai-nā a-jēm-rang
Kai-in na-vē	Kai khālo na-jēm
Kai-in na-vē-yoi	Kai khālo na-jēm-yoi .
Kai na-vē-rang a-ni-yoi .	Kai khālo a-jēm-rāng-ni-ti
Kai ka-la-chē	Kai kā-shē
Nang na-la-chē	Nang nang-shē
A-mā a-la-chē	A-mā a-shē
Kai-ni kan-la-chē	Kai-ni kā-shō
Nang-ni na-la-chē	Nang-ni nang-shē
A-mā-ni a-la-chō	A-mā-ni a-shē
Kai ka-chē-yoi	Kai kā-shē-yoi
Nang na-chē-yoi	Nang nang-shē-yoi
A-mā a-chē-yoi	A-mā a-shē-yoi
Kai-ni kan-chē-yoi	Kai-ni kā-shē-yoi

Köm (Manipur).
Kai-nin kan-wük-yö
Nang-nin nan-wūk-yō
An-mān-in an-wūk-yō .
Kain ka-lai-wűk-hi
Kain ka-lai-wūk-shai-yō .
Kain ka-wūk-yō
Kain ka-wūk ka-thā
Kain ka-wūk-si
Nang-in na-wūk-si . ,
Amān a-wűk-si
Kai-nin kan-wűk-si
Nang-nin nau-wūk-si
An-mā-nin an-wūk-si .
Kain ka-wūk-si
Kai ani-wūk-ēng
Kai ani-wük-yo-ēng
Kai anta-wūk-si-ēng
Kai ka-sē
Nang ka-së
Amā ka-sē
Kai-ni ka-sē-ūug
Nang-ni ka-sē-chai
An-mā-ni ka-sēng-hai .
Kai ka-sē-yō-ēng
Nang ka-sē-yō-chē
Amā ka-sē-yōng-hai .
Kai-ni ka-sē-yō

Pūrūm (Manipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hirōi-Lamgāug (Manipur).	English.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-piyaū	Ni-hing kē-ti	Nain ka-prai-in	188. We beat (Past Tense).
Nangai-nā wēl-piyaū .	Nang-hing ki-ta-nū	Nangin a-prai-no	189. You beat (Past Tense)
Ma-ni-nā wēl-piyaū	Amā-hing ki-yē-nū	Ma-mān a-prai-no	190. They beat (Past Tense)
Kai-nā wēl-song-ing	Ni kē	Nai ka-prai	191. I am beating.
Kai-nā wēl-am-song .	Ni kē-wal	Nai ka-prai-ka-am	192. I was beating.
Kai-nā wēl-sū-piyaū	Ditto	Nai ka-prai-riyaŭ	193. I had beaten.
Kai ka-wēl kolhā	Ni kē-warr	Nai ka-ro-prai ma-ro-wā .	194. I may beat.
Kai-nā wēl-ang	Ni a-būm-fo-ni	Nai pa-rai-ningdi	195. I shall beat.
Nang-nā wēl-ang	Nang a-būm-fo-ni	Nang a-prai-nā	196. Thou wilt beat.
Mo-nā wēl-ang	Amā-hē a-būm-fo-ni	Ma-māng ka-prai-rā	197. He will beat.
Ka-ni-nā wēl-ang	Ni-hing a-bum-fo-ni	Nai-ni a-prai-ni-kān .	198. We shall beat.
Nangai-nā wēl-ang	Nang-hing a-būm-fo-ni	Nangin a-prai-nān	199. You will beat.
Ma-ni-nā wēl-ang	A-mā-hing a-būm-fo-ni .	Ma-mā-ni ka-prai-rang	200. They will beat.
Kai-nā wēl-ang	Ni a-būm-fo-ni	Nai parai-ningdi	201. I should beat.
Kai-ta wēlē	Ni-do mi-ki-nū	Nai-ma prai-dā	202. I am beaten.
Kai-ta wēl fūrpiyo .	Ni-do mi-ki-nű	Nai-ma prai-riyaŭ-dā	203. I was beaten.
Kāi-ta wēl-angiti .	Ni-do mi-kaikothima .	Nai-mā ka-prai-rā	. 204. I shall be beaten.
Kai theng-song-ing .	Ni chi-ka-ni	Nai ka-wā-aping .	. 205. I go.
Nang theng-song-se	. Nang ű-chē-wā	Nang ka-wā-ngampati	. 206. Thou goest.
Mo theng-song	A-mā wā-chā	Ma-mā ka-wāngā .	. 207. He goes.
Ka-ni theng-song .	Ni-hing chi-ka-ni	Nain ka-wāng-ampin	. 208. We go.
Nangai theng-song .	Nang-hing ű-chē-wā	Nangin ka-wang-ampin	. 209. You go.
Ma-ni theng-song .	A-mā-hing chi-chē	. Ma-mān ka-wāng-nomā	. 210. They go.
Kai theng-senge	. Ni chē-nū	. Nai ka-wā-aping .	. 211. I went.
Nang theng-songe .	. Nang chē-ta-nū .	. Nang ka-wā-aping .	. 212. Thou wentest.
Mon theng-song .	A-mā chi-yē-nū	. Ma-mā ka-wā	. 213. He went.
Ka-ni theng-song .	. Ni-hing chi-hē-nū .	Nain ka-wā-ampin .	. 214. We went.

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English.	Rångkhöl (Cachar).	Halläm (Sylhet).	Langrong (Hill Tipperah).
215. You went	Nang-mā-hai nē-phē-tā	. (Nang-ni năin sē-tā) .	. Nang-mā-ni nāin kāl-tā .
216. They went	. Āmā-hai ā-phē-tā	(Ān-mā-ni ān-in sē-tā)	Ān-mā-ni ān kāl-tā
217. Go	Phē-rō	Sē-ro	. Kāl-nā
218. Going	Phē-mā	Sē-ā	. Kāllā
219. Gone	Ā-phē-tā	. Sē-ā	
220. What is your name?	Nang-mā irming ī-mō ?	Nā rā-ming ī-mâ?	Nai ming ī-mâ?
221. How old is this horse	Gōrai (or sā-kor) gūm ijā-mō ?	må? (or Mā sā-kor hi	Mā sā-kor ā-kūm ī-jā-kā mâ?
222. How far is it from her to Kashmir?	Āmā ātākāhī (Kāsmīr) alhā ijāmō ?	kūm ī-tū-kā mâ?) Hi-mā tākā-tā Kāsmir ī-tūk mā ālāk ?	Hījā omin Kasmir karten- kā mâ ?
223. How many sons are there in your father's house?	Nē-pā īn-shūngā bashal ijāmō (or ijā-ni) ?	om? (or Nang-mā pā nāi	Nang-mā pā nāi ī-jā-kā mâ ?
224. I have walked a long way to-day.	Abun (or ā-vūn) gēma alhā āhōng ā-ni-tā.	ī-jātā mâ ā nēi ?) Ā-vien ā-lāk-pā lām kāl kā choy.	Kai-mā banālam allā sir .
225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister	Ga-pā-tēr bāshāl āmā ga-ūnū moiān biik-tā.	Kā pangāk nāi ā sar-nū-lē kānin lāk (orsar-nū rū- thār lak).	Kai-mā pang-ak nāi ā-ni far-nū ā nēi.
226. In the house is the sad dle of the white horse	- Īn inshūng-hā gāhāba gōrai- nu zīn ā-ōm.	Ā-mā in-ā sā-kor ngoi sā- phal ā om.	
227. Put the saddle upon his back.	Ā-mā ā-rōl-hā zīn ni-pē-rō .	Hi-mā sā-phal ā rāong chung-ā ma-khap-râ.	
228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.	Gēmā āmā bāshal attām gē-jēm-tā.	Kein tok-molle āmā ā-nāi āchālāk-in kā jem (or kei- mā mā nāi retta-in jem-ōk).	tam kā thūk
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	rhā-hai naidī āphāk.	Ā-mā sip chūng-ā se-rāt ā	Ā-ni tlang chūng-ā se-rāt hâl.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	gorai-güng atoi.	Ā-mā sa-mā thing-kūng noy-ā sā-kor khāt chūng- ā ān-sung-ā ā om-	Ā-ni mā kūg nai-yā sā-kor chūng-ā tūng.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Āmā āŭ-pā āmā ga-ū-nū āllīn ā-ōm.	Ā-mā ā pā-rul-pā ā sar-nū nekin ā sei (or an-chang).	Ā-ni tā-pā ā far-nū nēkin ān-sang.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Āmāhi ā-mān dār-ni ādūli.	Sa-mā ā mān dār ni aduli (or dār ni lai duli).	Mā-hi ā-mān cheng-ni lai dhūli.
233. My father lives in that small house.	Gē-pā āmā injin in-shūnghā ā-ōm.	Kā-pā sa-mā in-tē-ā ā om (or omi).	Kai-mā pā sâ in-tai-ā om- <u>th</u> in.
234. Give this rupee to him	Āmā-hā āmā-hi dārkat ni- pē-rō.	Hi-mā sum-dār āmā-hā pē- ro.	Mā cheng ā-ni-ding pai-rā .
235. Take those rupees from him.	Ā-mā-tak shūm lā-rō	Sa-mā sum-hā āmā-kom-ā- tā lā-ro.	Sâ cheng hā ā-ni neng-ā lā-râ.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Āmā-hā ā-shā-tēn jēm-rō ē mināng-lē kid-rō.	Āmā-rāng achālāk-in jem- ro ruile khit-ro.	Āni hem-chem-râ chũn rữ- in khit-râ.
237. Draw water from the well.	(No word for well) Thūā-tak dūi lā-rō.	ā) tūi lok-ro (or choi-	Mā tūi-khūr-ā tūi choy-râ .
238. Walk before me	Gē-mā mutthuna phē-rō .	rā). Kā māton-ā kāl-choi-ro (or se-râ).	Kái-mā masā masā sir-râ .
239. Whose boy comes behind you?	Nangmā innūnghā tū-mō nai-tē ā-hōng ?	Nā nūk-ā tū nāi mâ ā hong?	Nang-mā nūng-ā tū nāi mâ hong?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Tūmō tūtē nahōng-mō āmāhā ni-rjōng-tā ?	Tū kom-ā-tā mâ sa-mā nei-rā-chok?	Mā-hi tū neng-ā mâ châk?
241. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Kuo mō bēpāri tak gi-rjōng- tā.	Hi-mā khūā mudi khāt kom-ā-tā.	Mā khūā dhūkānder khāt- kā neng-ā.
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Aimol (Manipur).	Chiru (Manipur).
Nang-ni na-chē-yoi	Nang-ni nang-shē-yoi .
A-mā-ni a-chē-yoi	A-mā-ni a-shē-yoi
Ka-chē (Imperative mood, cha-ro).	A-shē · · ·
Ka-chē-yā · · ·	A-shē a-lā
Ka-chē-yoi-yā	A-shē-lāy-ā
Na-ming imo n-ti?	Nang ri-ming i-mo-ti? .
Sēkor-hi kūm iyat a-ni-yoi- mo?	Sakorr hilā kūm i-yāt-mo- ni?
Hiwātēnā Kashmir tūng- rang hikok i-dor-mo-la?	Hi-nā-hi Kashmir shokrāng- khūlā i-chān-mo a-la-tā?
Na-pā innā na-nāi pasal iyat-mo an-om?	Nang-pā in-ā a-sha-pā i- yāt-mo om ?
Venni kai tam ka-chē-yoi .	Kai a-won-tū ā-la-tak kā- shē-yoi.
Ka-pāngā a-nai-in a-char-nū a-loi-yoi.	Ka-pā nāi-pang a-sha-pā-nā a-sarr-nū-khālo a-loi.
Sēkor angoi-pā yāfal-ko in-sūngā a-om-yoi.	Sakorr angoi safārr in-ā om
A-ting-ā yāfal beng-ta-ro .	Arrnamā safārr ma-kop-pē- ro.
Amā nāi-pasal-ko kai-in molā a-tam ka-vē-yoi.	Kai-nā a-mā a-sha-pā khālo ra-mo-lē tām-pūi ka-jēm- yoi.
A-lon-a a-mān sērāt sachik a-la-pē.	A-mā-nā ching lonā shirāt sobū ka-pēk-lāi.
A-mān thing kūng thoyā sekor a-chong-ā om.	A-mā-nā thing nūiyā sakorr āshūk a-om.
A-char-nū nēgā a-nāi-pang- pā a-sāng-yoi.	Amā a-sarr-nū khatū a-nái- pang-pā-nā a-shang-dēt.
A-mā man-ko lūfāi anni makhāi mankē.	Makhā man-katū dangkā a-di-lē-hērr.
Ka-pā-ko in sin-ā a-om-yoi .	Ka-pā khāto in pili-tē-yā o- om.
A-mā yēng lūfāi hi pe-ro	Dangkā hilā a-mā a-ding pē-rū.
A-mā yēng lūfāi a-tam hong-loi-ro.	A-mā a-dingā dangkā khā yoūng-loi-rū.
A-mā-ha-ko vē-jag-in-lā rūi-yā khit-ro.	A-mā khātū a-nak-tak jēm- danā rūirū-lē khop-ro.
Kūhā tūi va-choi-ro	Kūhā tūi khā lūk-tanā wāk-choi-rū.
Ka-māi-kūng-ā va-lon-ro .	Ka-māi-kūngā shē-rū
Na-nūg-ā pasal nāi tū-mo an-haūng-mo?	Nang nūwā tū-nāi-mc-ni pa-sa-nāi ā-hong.
Nāng-in a-mā-ha-ko tū yēng-ā nai-chok-mo?	Nang ma-khalā tū dingā nē-ra-chok-mo-ni?
Amā khū-wā tūkāl-ā kai-chāok.	A-mā khowā dūkān khat o-omā ki-ra-chaūk.

Kolrēn (Manipur).	Kōm (Manipur).
Nang-ni nin-chai-yai	Nang-ni ka-sē-yō-chōi
An-mā-ni an-chai-yai .	An-mā-ni ka-sē-yōn-hai .
Ka-chē	Ka-sē
Ki-wā-chai	Ka-sē-ā
Ki-wā-chain-ko	Ka-sē-yō-ā
Ni-ming ang-mo-nti?	Na ra-mhing hai-mō?
Hiwā sakorr hiko kūm i-yāt-mo ni-yai?	Sakör hi küm iyäyö-mö?.
Hiwā-chai-nān Ķashmir sūwok-nā ang-tū-mo-a-ni?	Hininā Kāshmir kasēhi haituk-mō ka-lhā ?
Ni-pā in-ā a-cha-pā ang- yāt-mo an-om?	Na-pā inā na-sā-pā haiyā- mō kō-ōm ?
Kai wēn-ko a-lā ki-chē-yai .	Tū-ning kai ka-tam ka-sē- yō.
Ki-pa mi-tūm a-cha-pān a- mā a-charr-nū a-nai.	Ka-pā nāi-pang-pān a-sā- pān amā a-sar-nū a-lōi-yō.
Sakorr a-bang sāfal-ko in sūng-ā a-om.	Sakōr ka-bang safar in-ā kō-ōm.
A-ting-ā sāfal tēt-rū .	Athūmā safar hāp-rō
Kain a-mā a-chā-pā molā a-tam ki-wēl-yai.	Kain amā a-sā-pā sachai- wāng ka-tam-ā ka-wūk-yō.
A-mān ching būng-ā siēl a-kbāl.	Amān ching būngā sē a-sēr
A-mān thing kūng noyā sakorr a-chūwong-ā a-om.	Amā thing haiyā sakōr anchūngā kō-ōm.
A-mā a-charr-nū nēko a- nāi-pā a-sāng.	Amā asar-nū chū anāi-pā ka-nēgā ka-sāi.
A-mā man-ko dangkā chai- ni lē ahērr.	Amā man-chū dangkā chēng-nhi makhāi.
In a-të-lëk-të kipā aom	In ka-sin-tēk-ā ka-pā kō-ōm
Hiwā dangkā a-mā yiēng pē-ro.	Dangkā hi amā nhēng pē-rō
A-mā yiēngā dangkā hawā wa-lai-ro.	Dangkā khā amā nhēngā lō-rō.
A-mā rinakā wēl-rū rūi-lē khop-ro.	Amākhā kanhagā wū-inā rhūi-wāng khit-rō.
Khūr-ā tūi yong-thāl-ro .	Kūhā khanā tūi thē-rō
Ki-mā-tiēng chē-ro	Ka-mhā sē-rō .
Ni-nūk-tiēng khoi chā-mo a-wā?	Na-ka-nhūng akhan tū sā- pā-mō kō-hōng ?
Nang-ko hiwā khoi-yēngā ni-nē-rik-chok-mo-ni?	Nang kha-ē tū nhēngā nā-rchōk-mō ?
Ning khūo hawā tūkāl-ā ka-nē-ri-chok-a-ni.	Khū hininā tūkāl hinā kā-rehōk.

Pűrüm (Manipur).	Anāl (Manipur).	Hirōi-Lamgang (Manipur).	English.
Nangai thëng-song	Nang-hing wā-cha-ti	Nangin ka-wā-am-pati .	215. You went.
Ma-ni thëng-song , .	Amā-hing wā-cha	Ma-mān ka-wā-lom	216. They went.
Thēng	Cha-chā	Ka-wā	217. Go.
Thēngā	Cha-nū	Wā-lom-dā	218. Going.
Thēng-sū-so	Cha-nū	Wā-nū	219. Gone.
Na-ming alo tiyāmē?	A-mhi-bā kū-ti?	Nang a-ming atā?	220. What is your name?
Sakorr hi kūm iyā a-yo-mo?	Sakol haibē kūm yāthūchā?	Sakol ā-kūm ta-yām sūkā?	221. How old is this horse?
Ināmakhaiyā Kāshmir fā iyā-lāmo?	Hūki hibē Kashmir hibē achaisokā?	Ḥawā-thūngti Kashmir tafāk ta-yā ka-lā?	222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
Na-pā in-ā na-sa-nāŭ iyā amamo?	Apā inthūng acharā ayāng- kā?	Apā in-thā a-nā-chā ta-yā ka-am?	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
Kai wonri lāmā thēng-siyā	Nibē ni ahanthi-mā chalē .	Si-ni nai-yā ka-nēm-kat chē-nū.	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
Ka-pātē sa-nāūpā-nā ma- sarr-nū lai-saū.	Kapā charā amā chalamā a-mā-wām-thū-thi.	Ka-pā komo a-nā-chā ma- charr laū-dā.	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
Sakorr angaŭ-pā sāpal in sūngā.	Sakol arābāhilē sāpal amā inthūng ankā.	Sakol ka-ngaŭ-ki sāpalā in-thūng-hā ka-am.	226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
A-chūng-ā sāpal sisi	Wa-lēn-hā sāpal athiyā .	Ma-pāng lēng-thā sāpal apkal.	227. Put the saddle upon his back.
Kai-nā ma-sa-nāū-pā lichai- yā lāmā wēl-piyaū.	Ni amā charā amhon kha- chi-mā ka-bon-thi.	Nai-yā ma-mā chā-pā sachai kadoka-mā parai-nū.	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
Mo-na chingā sil sēla am .	Amā būng-tā shal wa-pūn- hān-mang.	Hali lon-thā ma-māng sil sajik ma-pēgā.	229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
Mo-na thing-thuyā sakorr chonga am.	Amā thing-būl hēni sakol lēng tiūngkā.	Ma-mäng ding-bül-ing sakol tong-då ka-am.	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
Ma-nāū-nū tajū ma-nāū-pā- nā sāng-tik.	Amā chal hēlē wa-nē amān- chēlē sāngkā.	Ma-charr-nū ma-nāo isāngā	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
Māna man-jū lūpā ani makhāi.	Amā min hēlē ropā anhi makhē.	Āo man lūpā ki-ni makhāi	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
Ka-pā-na in tē-yā am .	In chārā thũng ka-pā ankā	Ka-pā in ka-dil-son thung ka-am.	233. My father lives in that small house.
Ma-ningā nā lūpā pē	Ropā hē amā kūng-hā pēwā	Lūpā hawā ma-mā-hin-thā api.	234. Give this rupee to him.
Ma-ningā lūpā hā lā	Amā kūng-ki ropā hē a-li- wā.	Ma-mā-hin-ki awā lūpā a- laū.	235. Take those rupees from him.
Mo-tā nā wēl-ā rūi ahū .	Amā-hē kanā būnā shūwā tūngā.	Ma-mā ka-dūngē a-prai-lā rūiyā aktū.	236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
Kūhā tūi achoi ahang	Kūhā thūng-gi dū hi-chū- wā.	Kūhā thūng-ki di hāi-sok	. 237. Draw water from the well.
Ka-mā thēng	Ka-dū-hā wāng-wā .	Kū-dū-thā wā	. 238. Walk before me.
Na-nū-ting-ā a-tū sa-nāŭ-tē hong-tamē?	Athal akū charā wāngkā ?	A-dil-thā kū nāo ka-ra-wā i	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
Nang nā-hā a-tū ningā lai- yachē?	Nangbē akū-kūng amā-to an-kati?	Nangā awā ko-hin-kē a-rēn	240. From whom did you buy that?
Nā-hū tūkāl mi a-khā ningā	Amā khū-ki tūkāl khē kūng-ki rē-nū.	Hão thũng-ki tũkān thũng ki mi khat hin-ki.	241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

SOUTHERN CHIN SUB-GROUP.

To the south of the Chin Hills there are several tribes which are related to the Northern Chins. Two of them are relatively well known, viz., the Khyangs or Shös and the Khamis. Both will be dealt with separately below. Many southern tribes, such as Anu, Kun, Pallaing, and Sak or That, are mentioned in the Census reports and gazetteers, but we do not know anything about their dialects. Major R. M. Rainey has drawn up the following notes regarding the most important tribes bordering on the Yaw country in the Pakōkku district:—

'The Welaung Chins inhabit the villages at the headwaters of the Myittha river. They are bounded on the north and west by Baungshè Chins, on the south by Chinbōks, and on the east by Taungthas of the villages round Wethet, which is distant four days' journey.

'The Chinbōks live in the hills from the Maw river down to the Sawchaung. They are bounded on the north by Welaung and Baungshè Chins, on the east by the Burmans, on the west by the Arakan Yomas, and on the south by the Yindu Chins.

'The Yindus inhabit the valleys of the Salinchaung and the northern end of the Mon valley, bounded on the south by the Chinbons; otherwise the same as Chinboks.

'The Chinbons inhabit the southern end of the Monchaung, and stretch across the Arakan Yomas into the valley of the Pichaung. They are bounded on the south by the Chinbons on the Minbu frontier, on the east by the Burmans, and on the west by the Arakanese. . . .

'The Welaung Chins are stated to be of Baungshè origin. The Chinböks claim a similar origin. The Yindus state that their origin is similar to that of the Taungthas, an industrious race who inhabit the Yaw and Myittha valleys in Burman territory, and who claim to have come from Popa hill. The Chinbons, further south, point out a rock which they state is the body of a Min or official who was killed in a quarrel with his brother when they were emigrating from Popa, and was turned into a stone. The brother returned to Popa. The Chinbons claim Burman origin. Further than this the Chins appear to have no history. In appearance they resemble Burmans though some have better features.

'There appears to have been no attempt at government further than an incomplete village system. Each village has a thugyi. The title is hereditary and does not necessarily indicate a man of influence . . .

'There is no religion further than propitiating and consulting nats or spirits . . .

'The system of cultivation carried on by the different sections or tribes on the South Yaw frontier is similar, and the crops produced vary but slightly. It is all taungya cultivation . . .

'The houses resemble those of Burmans, except that they are stronger and better built . . . During the cultivating season the villages are abandoned and temporary huts are built in the fields as well as sheds for storing grain . . .

'Men, women, and even small children are never without their pipes and tobacco, and smoke constantly.

. . . The most remarkable custom of these people is their habit of getting drunk on every possible occasion.

. . . 'All women have their faces tattooed. The process is commenced when they are small children and gradually completed, the operation extending over several years.'

We have very little information with regard to the dialects spoken by these tribes. There are said to be two dialects spoken by the tribes on the headwaters of the Myittha.

The Chinböks speak three distinct dialects, the northern from the Mon to the north bank of the Chē; the central, spoken on the south bank of Chē and the Kyauksitchaung; the southern, spoken by the Kadin and Sawchaung Chins.

The Yindus and the Chinbons are also said to speak separate languages. The Chinbon dialect is identical with that spoken in the Laungshē township.

The Chinmes, who inhabit the sources of the eastern Mon, are said to be a sort of connecting link between the Baungshès and the Chinboks.

Messrs. Scott and Hardiman have printed vocabularies of Chinbōk, Taungtha, and the dialect spoken in Yawdwin, i.e., probably, the northern Chinbōk dialect. The pronominal prefixes, which are so characteristic of the Kuki-Chin languages, seem to

Daingnet, which has formerly been considered as a Chin dialect, turns out to be a corrupt form of Bengali.

occur in all these dialects. Chinbok and Taungtha seem to be akin to Sho. Chinbok che, I, kye-mi, we; and Taungtha kye, I, kye-bu, we, seem to correspond to kyē, I, kyē-me, we, in Shö. Yawdwin is also apparently a southern dialect. Here we find the prefixed negative m in ambean, bad, from a-bean, good. But the materials at my disposal are not sufficient for entering upon these questions. The vocabularies apparently contain many misprints, and I am therefore obliged to leave the question about these dialects open.

The first numerals in these dialects, compared with those occurring in Lai and Shö, are :-

13			Lai.	Taungtha.	Yawdwin.	Chinbök.	Shö.
One			pö-kat	pa-khat	tu-mat	tu-mat	mat.
Two	•	-	pö-nī	pa-nīp	nhi	nhi	nhi.
Three		-	$p\ddot{o}$ - $th\ddot{u}m$	pa-thum	tum	thum	thūm.
Four	•		pö-lī	pa-li	руі	phi	lhi.
Five	•	•	pö-nga	pa-nga	mha	mha	ngha.
Six	•	-	pö-rūk	pa-ru	kroak	khrūk	sop.
Seven	•		pö-sērī	pa-sari	khri	serr	shēy.
Eight		-	pö-rye <u>th</u>	pa-rīp	khret	shīt	shet.
Nine			pö-kwa	pa-kwa	ko	ko	ko.
Fen		-	рö-га	pa-rhā	rhar	shrā	ha.
Twenty			pö-kül	rui-nīp	ma-kôn	um-ku	, kūl.
Hundred			za-kat	tayā	pra	phya	ph y ā.

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SHÖ OR KHYANG.

The Khyengs or Khyangs inhabit the country on both sides of the Arakan Yomas. According to Major Fryer their geographical limits are comprised within the 18th and 21st degrees of North latitude. In the Chittagong Hill Tracts Captain Lewin found them chiefly on the spurs of the great hill range which separates that district from Arakan. There are now about 100 Khyangs in the Boh Mong Chief's circle. The territory inhabited by the Khyangs in the north is rugged and inaccessible. In the south they dwell on the fertile banks of streams, and can procure the necessaries of life without difficulty; moreover, though still retaining their individuality, they are gradually adopting the more civilized manners and the mode of agriculture of the Arakanese. Mr. Houghton remarks:—

'The Southern or tame Chins, as they are sometimes called to distinguish them from the Northern or wild Chins, inhabit both sides of the Arakan-Yomas and are found in the Akyab, Kyaukpyu, and Sandoway districts on the west, and the Minbu, Thayetmyo, Prome, and Henzada districts on the east. They are very closely related to the wild Chins, Mros, Kamis, etc., for though the languages of these are mutually unintelligible, a comparison of their vocabularies shows the difference to be merely one of dialect, and philologically of no great importance. The tame Chins are in fact merely a tribe which formerly inhabited the present Lushai or wild Chin country, and which has been forced south by a vis a tergo at probably no very distant epoch. This movement to the southward is still going on, though slowly, for tribes and clans must be very hard-pushed indeed before they definitely abandon their ancestral hills and valleys. There is a tendency amongst the southernmost Chins to merge into the Burman race, and this is also the case amongst those who have gone farthest from the Yoma to the eastward. One reason however which prevents the Chins from assimilating rapidly with the Burmans is their practice of keeping pigs, which are used both as an article of diet and for offering to the nâts and the "Khun". These pigs are destructive of any kind of garden in or near the village, and hence to avoid disputes Chin houses must always be by themselves and not intermixed with

The people call themselves A-shö (Houghton), Hiou or Shou (Fryer), Shyū or Shoa (Hodgson). They are called Chins by the Burmans, and Khyang or Khyeng is the Arakanese pronunciation of this same word. According to a tradition they have come down from the sources of the river Chindwin. Others claim to be of the same lineage as the Burmese and Arakanese, descendants of Burmese refugees, or remnants of an army lost on its way westwards. The number of Chins in Burma at the census of 1891 was 95,499.

While the most northerly Shös have not been much influenced by the civilisation of the surrounding tribes, the more southerly gradually assimilate themselves to the customs and manners of their neighbours.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of words has been received from the Chittagong Hills Tracts. It is however almost impossible to form a fair idea of the dialect from these texts. I have therefore also used the grammars by Messrs. Fryer and Houghton, mentioned under authorities below, for the compilation of the grammatical sketch. The language described in both is practically identical. With regard to the dialect spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts our oldest information about it is the vocabulary furnished by Captain Lewin. This is, however, with two or three alterations, reprinted from the vocabulary prepared by Captain Phayre in Arakan, and published by Hodgson. Another vocabulary published by Captain Phayre in 1841 differs only slightly. Captain Phayre remarks that there is some difference between the

dialects spoken by the Northern and the Southern tribes. The words published by Hodgson were taken from a man belonging to the Northern tribes.

In the grammatical sketch I have throughout compared the statements given by Messrs. Fryer and Houghton with the forms occurring in the specimen and list of words received from Chittagong. It will be seen that there are many instances of disagreement, not more however than might be expected between dialects spoken in such relatively distant countries.

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 B. A. N. Parrott, I.S.C., and the dialect is different from that described in the preceding work.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is very inconsistent, both in the specimen and in the list of words received from Chittagong, and it is impossible to form an exact idea of the pronunciation. The short forms of the personal pronouns which are generally prefixed to

verbs are a good instance of the great variety in the spelling. Thus we find ka-mai, I am; kā-chet-ai, I will go; ko-bun-āl, I found (him) again; ku-du-āhe, I am about to die. It is probable that these pronominal forms are pronounced without a marked stress when prefixed to other words. Their vowel is then probably much reduced and indistinct, its colour being influenced by the vowel of the following, accented, syllable. But there is also in other places great inconsistency. The word kēi, I, is for instance also written keāi, kāi, khe, and ke. The pronominal stem ai, he, that, has also the forms oi, or o, and e. \bar{E} is interchangeable with ei and i; thus, $sh\bar{e}l$ and sheil, cow; $cheng\bar{a}$ and $sing\bar{a}$, to. The word for 'son' occurs as chāu, chau, cho, and cha. In the same way we find pāu and po, father. The sound intended is probably o or \hat{a} , the a in English 'all.' The verb chon, to run, is also written chan. Mr. Houghton gives sán for Southern Chin, and the same sound is probably also meant in the specimen. In the Chittagong list a is apparently very often written for a. The personal pronoun of the second person is given as nung in the list, and as nang in the specimen. Houghton gives naung and Fryer naun. In the same way we find a-khal and ai-kūl, they, etc. Houghton states that the Southern Chins do not pronounce their vowels distinctly, and this fact accounts for many of the inconsistencies mentioned above. We must, however, also remember that the preparation of the specimens has been attended by extraordinary difficulties.

An h is sometimes added after a vowel at the end of a word. Thus especially after the postposition \bar{a} , in, to, which is then occasionally written ah. Houghton mentions this h which he calls *spiritus lenis*, and says that the breath must be expelled after pronouncing the vowel, the breathing being of various strength. He transliterates it h. Thus, \bar{a} thom-lo-w \bar{a} , at a distance; but oi pre- $\bar{a}h$, that country in; \bar{a} -ng \bar{a} -ah, the servants to.

The w in \bar{a} -thom-lo-w- \bar{a} is euphonic. In the same way a euphonic y is inserted before \bar{a} , when an i precedes; thus, $l\bar{a}i$ -y- \bar{a} , in the fields.

The consonants j and ch seem to be interchangeable; thus ai-na-lache, eating; thoong-ba-lājeh, arising. J, however, occurs very rarely. Ch is also interchanged with s or sh; thus, $cheng\bar{a}$ and singa, to, with; \bar{a} -thon- $\bar{a}i$ -cho and \bar{a} -thon- $\bar{a}i$ -sho, to be. In other words ch corresponds to s in the dialects described by Houghton and Fryer; thus, in cho, son; chet, go; chon, run, etc. In all such cases the real sound seems to be s.

An r occurs in some words after k, kh, and p. Instead of khra, moon, Lewin has klhau, and l is probably the real sound. Houghton remarks that the Southern Chins are unable to pronounce r, and substitute l for it in Burmese words. In the parable, r occurs in the following words: khrong, man, Houghton and Fryer khlaung; $mutho\ krak$, a harlot; krau, to fall, Houghton klauk, Fryer $kl\ddot{u}$, Burmese $kr\ddot{a}$; kro, time, Houghton khyin, Fryer khoa; kro and keong, to tend, Houghton and Fryer klong, Burmese kyaung; krok, lost, Houghton $kl\ddot{u}k$; $prang\ddot{a}$, out, Houghton and Fryer plaung, Burmese $prang\ddot{a}$; pre, country, Houghton $pl\ddot{e}$, Burmese $prang\ddot{a}$. It is probable that r in such words is due to the Burmese orthography, and that l is spoken.

The writing of aspirated letters is very inconsistent. Thus we find *khrong* and *krong*, man; *mhai* and *mai*, to be; *nha* and *na*, thou; *ni* and *nhi*, two, etc. The aspirated s has been transliterated 's. The consonants gn are often written instead of ng; thus, $\bar{a}gn\bar{a}$ for \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, servant. Compare Houghton ngho, Burmese $ng\bar{a}$, to hire. In $singn\bar{a}$, to, ngn is written instead of ng. K seems to be softened before a vowel in ai-peg-ah, to-eat-gavenot.

We have no information regarding tones in the Chittagong dialect. But it is probable that it has the same three tones which Houghton and Fryer mention. Houghton describes them as the short acute, the heavy grave, and the rising tones; Fryer as rising tone, falling tone, and emphatic stress.

These descriptions are not sufficient to form a clear idea of the tones. Houghton further remarks that the Chins speak habitually in a lower tone than the Burmans.

Articles.—There are no articles. The numeral *māth* or *ngāt*, one, is used as an indefinite article, and definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} often occurs before nouns; thus, \bar{a} -po, father; \bar{a} -cho, son. It is in many cases perhaps originally the pronominal prefix of the third person. We find, however, \bar{a} -po used in the sense of 'my father.' In \bar{a} -ng \bar{a} , a servant, the \bar{a} seems to be a formative prefix. Compare Burmese $ng\bar{a}$, to hire. Fryer mentions another prefix ka or kh, in ka-nhi, sun; khlo, moon. The list of words gives kha-ni, sun; and khra, moon.

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. The gender of human beings is generally distinguished by the use of different words. Thus, $p\hat{a}$, father; $n\bar{u}$, mother: $t\bar{a}$, (elder) brother; $b\bar{e}$, sister: pata, i.e., pa-tho, man; mata or mutho, woman: pata $ch\hat{a}$, man young, son; mata $ch\hat{a}$, daughter. Instead of mata Houghton gives natho, and Fryer nhato, and the form beginning with ma is perhaps due to the influence of the Burmese ma. Another word for 'male' is pa-chung or pu-chung. It is used as a suffix. Thus, \bar{a} -chau pu-chung, child male, son. The corresponding female suffix is $n\bar{u}$; thus, $ch\bar{u}nn\bar{u}$, i.e., $ch\hat{a}$ $n\bar{u}$, daughter.

Number.—According to Houghton and Fryer there are three numbers, singular, dual, and plural. Both give hoi as the suffix of the dual, but add that the numeral 'two' is generally used instead, except in a few compounds such as ta-nau-hoi, elder brother younger brother both, the elder and younger brothers. The suffix hoi is sometimes added to the verb; thus, on-u-hoi, were. It seems to be identical with the plural suffix hai in Rāngkhōl and connected dialects. The list of words always uses ni, two. The only instance in the parable is ā-chau pu-chung ni, two sons. Houghton gives the following suffixes of the plural, hyā, dü, and di, Fryer hio, loi, tak, and nii. In the parable there is no instance of a plural suffix, the number always appearing from the context. The list of words contains two plural suffixes, nūng, apparently corresponding to Fryer's nii, to abound, and ti, corresponding to Houghton's di and Lushēi tē. Thus, pā nūng, fathers; châ-nii ti, daughters.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not take any suffix. Houghton mentions a suffix ni in the accusative, but he gives no instances. It seems to occur in kai-ni, me; $aingh\bar{a}t$ -ni, him, etc. The suffix of the subject of transitive verbs is $l\bar{a}$. Thus, \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$ - $l\bar{a}$ hopek, the servant said. In the second specimen we find na. Houghton gives $y\ddot{u}$, $t\ddot{u}$, and $n\ddot{u}$ as the suffixes of the instrumental. The Genitive is expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, $p\acute{a}$ im- \bar{a} , (my) father's house in. The list of words gives a genitive suffix kheo; thus, khrong pai kheo, of a good man. In $n\bar{a}ng$ -ko, thine, the same suffix is written ko. Compare Fryer's $k\ddot{u}$ and $g\ddot{u}$. Houghton calls this suffix an ablative suffix, and compares Burmese ka. The suffix tha is apparently used in a similar sense; thus, $ch\acute{a}$ - $n\ddot{u}$ ngat tha, from a daughter. Compare Comparative, below. The nominative is often used as a Vocative; thus, $pa\ddot{u}$, O father. Sometimes o is prefixed; thus, o- $p\bar{a}u$, O father. Houghton mentions o as a suffix; thus, bhoi-yo, O chief. Other relations are expressed by means of postpositions. Such are \bar{a} , in, to; $cheng\bar{a}$, to, from; $n\bar{a}ng$ and ong, with; tha or thak, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives usually follow the noun they qualify, and suffixes and postpositions are then added to them and not to the qualified noun. Houghton states that adjectives, with the suffixes $k\ddot{u}$ or $g\ddot{u}$, and di, that is to say as relative participles, often precede the noun they qualify. In the parable the superlative always is placed before the noun, and, according to Houghton, every adjective which is modified by an adverb is put in the same position.

The particle of Comparison is tha, from; thus, \bar{a} -be tha ka kling, his sister than I tall, I am taller than his sister; \bar{a} -ling tha \bar{a} -ling, tall than tall, taller. Mr. Fryer gives lon as the particle of comparison. Words meaning 'much,' 'very,' 'great,' may be added to the adjective; thus a-tha ka pai-tei, him-than I good-very, I am better than he. Fryer gives san, great; thus san aphoi, great good, better. He and Houghton state that hek may be added to denote the highest degree. Thus, a-bhoi-hek, the best. No-lek, younger, seems to mean 'young-small.' Compare No. 233 in the list of words.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. The form for 'one' is given as $m\bar{a}t$ in the Chittagong list, and as $m\bar{a}th$ in the specimen. Compare Fryer's pum-hot, one, and Chinbōk tu-mat, one. In No. 101 and following we find another form ngat, which corresponds to the forms $h\hat{a}$ and hot given by Houghton and Fryer. Buchanan gives moo. These forms of the first numeral are apparently connected with the forms in the Mōn-Khmēr group of languages. Compare Mōn mvoi, Anam mot, one. The form mi for 'two' which occurs in No. 117 is perhaps a mishearing for ni or nhi. In Buchanan's list, however, we find palmee, two. The numerals sok, six, and shet, eight, correspond to the Burmese forms khyauk and $sh\bar{i}t$, or $sh\bar{e}$, as against the other Chin languages. $K\bar{u}l$, twenty, in the Chittagong list is identical with the forms in some Central Chin dialects. Lewin gives $k\bar{u}r$, and Houghton's go and Fryer's goi are clearly identical. The numerals are adjectives and follow the noun they qualify.

There are several generic prefixes. The Chittagong list occasionally uses the prefix $p\bar{a}i$ before numerals applying to human beings; thus, $p\bar{a}$ $p\bar{a}i$ -ni, two fathers. Fryer has pun, which before h and m becomes pum; thus, pumhot, one. Houghton gives $p\bar{u}n$, or, before the two first numerals, pa. In the specimen we find $m\bar{a}cho$ hu- $m\bar{a}th$, goat young one, where hu is a generic prefix. Houghton gives $z\bar{u}n$ for animals and birds; $th\bar{e}k$ for fishes, arrows, etc.; $b\bar{a}$ for reptiles; lun for long things; and lo for flat things. Fryer has zum for quadrupeds; $th\bar{e}k$ for fish; and yum for reptiles.

Pronouns.—The following *Personal pronouns* are given by Houghton (H) and Fryer (F):—

Singular,-

```
naung, (H), naun (F), thou.
                                                              ayā, he, she, it.
          kyē, I.
                                                              ayā, his.
                               naun(g), na(F), thy.
          kyē, ka, my.
                               naung-gu (H), thine.
                                                              ay\bar{a}-gu, his.
          ky\bar{e}-gu (H), mine.
                                                             na-hoi pa-nhi, yahoi (H);
Dual.
                               naun(g)-nhi, you two.
          kyē-nhi, we two.
                                                              ya-nhi (F), they two.
Plural,-
                                                             na-hyá, yā-ti, ayā-hyá (H);
                               naun(g)-me, you.
          kyē-me, we.
                                                              ayatti, ya-ti (F), they.
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Houghton also adds *pa-nhi*, two, in the first and second persons dual. In the specimen and the list of words received from Chittagong the personal pronouns are represented as follows:—

There is no mention of a dual, but forms ending in *ni* are given as plural forms, in addition to such ending in *mi*. They are probably duals.

First person.—Instead of $ky\bar{e}$, I, we find $ke\bar{a}i$, $k\bar{e}i$, $kh\bar{e}$, and ke, all probably representing $ki\bar{e}$ or $ky\bar{e}$. Instead of $ky\bar{e}$ -gu, mine, the list gives $k\bar{e}i$ kheo, and the specimen $k\bar{a}i$ -ko in $k\bar{a}i$ -ko ke kon, my share, lit. probably 'me-of my share.' The form kai-ni occurs thrice, and is translated 'me.' $K\bar{a}y$ - \bar{a} is 'me-to.' In the plural we find $k\bar{e}i$ -mi, we, but in the conjugation of verbs $kh\bar{e}$ -ni and kei-ni, which seem to be duals. I cannot analyse the form $k\bar{u}t$ -ka, our.

Second person.—For 'thou' the specimen gives nāng, the list of words nung, and also nung-ni, in nung-ni ni-mai, thou art. Nung-ni is perhaps 'you two.' Nung-kheo in the list, and nāng-ko in the specimen, correspond to Houghton's naung-gu, thine. 'You' is translated by nung in the list, but we also find nung-nya mai, you were, and nung-ni mal, you strike. Nung-ni and nung-nya are probably the dual. Compare nāng-ni-ā in the parable.

Third person.—The stem of the personal pronoun of the third person seems to be ai or oi. Thus, ai-lā mal-shā, he strikes; ai-kheo, his. The form ayā occurs in ayā mai, he is. We also find the form a-ni, which is the usual form in Chinbok. Other forms for 'he' are formed by adding some noun meaning 'man.' Thus, oi-krong-ong and oikhrong-ya, that man, he; ai-nghāt-ni, he. I cannot analyse this latter word, which is also written enghāt in enghāt mai, he was. Oi seems also to be the first component of ochingah, he, which occurs thrice in the specimen. The list of words furnishes choikhrong, he. Choi is probably a demonstrative pronoun, corresponding to Lushei chu, that; thus, choi-khrong, that man. Nang won is translated 'his property' in the parable. $N\bar{a}ng$ is probably written for $n\bar{a}$, from the demonstrative base $n\bar{a}$, that, he. The pronoun nā, that, also occurs in some old Kuki dialects, such as Pūrūm, etc. Compare also the plural na-hyá, they. The whole sentence nāng won nāng-ni-āh o-chingah ka-ni fai-pek must therefore be translated 'his property them-to he dividing gave.' In the plural we find \bar{a} -nhi, they, or perhaps 'they two,' in the parable, and the following forms in the list: ai-kūl, a-khal, and a-kal, they. Kūl means 'twenty', and is perhaps used to denote an indefinite number. Ai-ā pēk, their, in No. 31, seems to mean 'he gave.'

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Demonstrative pronouns.—Ni, this; tho, that. Instead of tho Fryer gives to and to-ni, and the parable and the Chittagong list ai or oi, ai-ni and ai—ni. Ni, this, may also be added to other pronouns, apparently in order to emphasise; thus, kai-ni, me; ainghāt-ni, he; and perhaps nung-ni, thou. See Personal pronouns, above. A pronoun mai, this, seems to occur in mai-nhi-la-je, them of; or perhaps 'and.'

Relative pronouns.—There are only a few instances of relative clauses in the parable: nāng chau mutho krak māth-ong khom-iong wān-thong āi-kungām pai māth-ā nā-pek-nāng, thy son woman bad-conducted one-with joining property-threw-away (compare Houghton's tong, to throw away), him-for feast one thou-gavest, thou gavest a feast for thy son who lost his property in company with a harlot. Here the two clauses are simply put together without any word denoting the relation between them. Another instance is: kei-ā imhai-on e-kha-ni nāng-ko, me-to being all-this thine, all that I have is thine. A participle here supplies the place of a relative pronoun. E-kha-ni probably corresponds to Fryer's kho-kho, all. Fryer and Houghton state that the suffixes of the relative participle are gu (Fryer), gü, kü, and di (Houghton). Compare lāi-tan-di, cultivator; mā-keong-di, a shepherd, in the list. Houghton remarks that the ordinary tense termination may also be used to form relative participles; thus tü-ā lō-wō khlaung, now came man, the man who has now come; compare āni ā-lhom-lo-wā ā-mi-kho-ā, he far-off he-was-time-at.

Interrogative pronouns.—Several forms occur, but I can do little more than to enumerate them.

Who?—The list of words gives nung-wong, but in 240 we find u-yam; thus ni wan ni u tha ā-lē yam, this thing this whom from you bought? This form corresponds to Captain Lewin's u-ām and Hodgson's u-liam. Houghton and Fryer give ani and ani-nü.

What?—The list of words gives your, Captain Lewin imam, which seems to be a misprint for Hodgson's inihām. In the parable we find ethoniyam, what is the matter? The interrogative pronoun seems to be e-yam, and thon-i apparently corresponds to $tan-\bar{e}$ to be suitable, to be the matter with, to be, in Houghton's vocabulary. Another form ya or ya-om occurs in nung mi ya, thy name what? ni-thak Kashmir prē ya lam-la, herefrom Kashmir country how far? på im-ā chấ pa-chung ya mai om, father's house-in child male how many are? ni chey e-ya achak mai dākā, this horse-of which age is? E-ya in the last instance seems to mean 'how much.' $D\bar{a}$ - $k\bar{a}$ is probably an interrogative particle; compare Lai dako. Ya in e-ya is perhaps written for yo, compare hyau-ūm, how much? given by Hodgson and Lewin. Houghton gives pa-hyō, and Fryer pi-hio, how many? $P\alpha$ and pi in these forms must be compared with the generic prefix with numerals. Compare however pi, which, what? in Fryer's sketch. The parable seems to give an instance of this pronoun in the sentence kāi-po ku āgnā-chegnā pā hobong omi, for which I think we must read kāi-po ku āngā-chengā pā-ho bong omi (or ā-mai), my-father's many servants-to how-much bread is? Compare phong, to bake, in Houghton's vocabulary. Baung, what? is mentioned by Houghton and Fryer. Compare Siyin \bar{a} - $b\bar{a}ng$, what?

Indefinite pronouns.—Indefinite pronouns seem to be formed from the same stems as the interrogative ones. Houghton gives $ani-pa\ s\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$, anybody, and $baung-pa\ s\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$, anything. In the parable we find u-hi, anybody; thus, $u-l\bar{a}-hi\ \bar{a}ni-\bar{a}\ ai-pegah$, anyone him to food-gave not.

Verbs.—Abbreviated forms of the personal pronouns are prefixed to the verbs in order to indicate the person and number of the subject. These prefixes are as follows: ka, I; na, thou; a, he, she, it, they; na, we two, you two; ma, we, you. The vowels of these prefixes are sometimes long and sometimes short in the parable, and their quality also varies, apparently after the quality of the following vowel. The dual and plural forms na and ma are taken from Houghton and Fryer. The former remarks that the prefixes cannot be dropped in the first and second persons, while a can be prefixed at pleasure to the third person, and also to the imperative. The practice in the parable and in the Chittagong list is very inconsistent. We find $k\bar{a}$, ka, ke, ko, and ku, I; $n\bar{a}$, ni, and $ng\bar{e}$, thou; khi-ni, we; nya, you. Very often the prefixes are dropped.

The root alone, without any suffix, is freely used to denote present and past times; thus, nung ni mal, thou strikest; no-lek chá-lā ā-po-ā hopek, the youngest son his-fatherto said; khe ke mal, I am striking, I have struck; pū chū-nū ka-nak, (my) uncle's daughter I-have-taken, etc. This form is also used as a kind of relative participle; thus, āni ālhom-lo-wā ā-mi-khoā, he way-far-at he-was-time-at, when he was still far off. For khoā the specimen gives khoāh and khoyā, and Houghton khwā for khoā. Some suffixes are apparently added without altering the meaning. In the parable we find a few instances of the suffix ai or āi used in this way. Thus, no-khom-ai, joined; pān-āi, called. In the Chittagong list we find khe ke chet-āi, I go. In khē ke ka ta nēi, I am, we have perhaps the same suffix. $\bar{E}i$ in $tan-\bar{e}i$ may, however, represent \bar{e} ; see Compound verbs, below. A verb thon, to be proper, to be, seems to occur in the parable. Compare tan-ē, to be suitable, to be the matter with, to become, to be, in Houghton's vocabulary. In om-i, there is, i seems to be used in the same way as ai. Houghton gives \ddot{u} , and Fryer u as the suffix of the present tense, and ai is perhaps an attempt to denote the sound ii. Houghton remarks that \bar{o} is substituted for \ddot{u} when the final vowel of the verb is \bar{o} ; thus, kyē ka lō-w-ō, I come. According to the same authority the more northerly Chins use hü instead of ō. Compare Siyin hi. Another suffix which seems no more to have a distinct meaning is sha, also written cho and cha. Thus, ai-la mal-sha, he strikes; ai chet-cha, he goes; khe ke chet-cha, I went. In khe ke mal-ai-shá, I strike, ai and shá are both added.

A Present definite is, according to Houghton, formed by combining the participle ending in $n\bar{a}$ with the verb $\tilde{a}n$, to be; thus, baung saih- $n\bar{a}$ na $\tilde{a}n$ - \bar{u} , what doing you are? The Chittagong list uses the root as a present definite; thus, ai-ni chak pek- \bar{a} ka keong, that hill-of top-on I tending-am.

An Imperfect seems to occur in khe ke mal-hiā-a, I was striking. Houghton and Fryer have no corresponding form.

Past tense.—Houghton gives ni- \ddot{u} and Fryer ni-u as the suffix of the past. The former states that the Northern Chins use ni- $h\ddot{u}$ instead of ni- \ddot{u} . There is apparently no corresponding form in the parable. Ai-kungām poi $m\bar{a}th$ - \bar{a} $n\bar{a}$ -pek- $n\bar{a}ng$, him-for feast one thou gavest, may perhaps contain this suffix in the form $n\bar{a}ng$, but it is more probable that $n\bar{a}ng$ is the personal pronoun of the second person, the order of words being apparently false throughout the specimen. In $n\bar{u}ng$ $\bar{a}iyung$ $ng\bar{e}$ chet, thou wentest, $\bar{a}iyung$ or $\bar{a}iyung$ $ng\bar{e}$ means 'formerly.' Compare ayang- $gy\bar{i}$ - $gy\bar{i}$ in Houghton's vocabulary. $Ng\bar{e}$ is, however, probably a miswriting for $n\bar{e}$ or na, the pronominal prefix of the second person.

The suffix of the Future is ai. Houghton gives aih and Fryer ei. The h in aih is the 'spiritus lenis.' See Pronunciation, above. Thus, kā chet-ai, I will go; ko

hopek-ai, I will say. Shá may be added; thus, khê ka būp-āi, or būp-āi-shá, I should beat. The latter form seems to be properly used as an infinitive of purpose. In khe ke $tan-\bar{e}-ai$, I may be, we have the same suffix. With regard to \bar{e} see Compound verbs, below. The future suffix ai is different from the ordinary affirmative suffix ai, i, or ii, mentioned above.

The suffix of the *Imperative* is, according to Fryer, e. Houghton gives e and we, bhoi, nhaung-e, and nhaung-bhoi in the singular, bhoi-zü and zü-he in the plural. He also mentions the imperatives an-baih-i and an-i, be thou. The suffix e is also found in the vocabularies of Hodgson and Lewin. In the Chittagong list it occurs in lawe, i.e., láw-ē, take, and probably also in chet-ēi, walk, and tan-ei, i.e., thon-ē, be. A form corresponding to Houghton's nhaung-e seems to occur in the corrupt passage chenang-kei āhai ongko āinilhāje kāpao, let us eat and be merry. I understand this passage as follows: che-nang-e ā-hai-ong-ko āinilhāje kā-pyā-ong, come to-be-merry and to-feast. The imperative is usually formed without any suffix in the list; thus, che, go; mal, strike; $p\bar{e}k$, give. Sometimes a or \bar{a} is prefixed; thus, a- $\bar{e}i$, eat; \bar{a} -lau, bring. I have not been able to analyse the passage nang kai-ni opong ā-tho-āi, you me servant make. Ā-tho-āi is the imperative of a verb which occurs in many connected forms of speech, and means 'to do.' Opong may correspond to Burmese a-phaung, companion.

The suffixes of the negative imperative are ne and di (Houghton) or ti (Fryer).

There are no instances in the parable.

Infinitive—Houghton states that verbal nouns are formed by means of the prefix a; thus, a-lo, the coming. By suffixing the postposition \bar{a} an infinitive of purpose is effected, e.g., ayā a-mán-ā, in order to seize him. The same idea may also be expressed by adding the suffix ong; thus, ayā mán-ong, in order to seize him. Fryer says that the future is used as an infinitive. The suffix \bar{a} , without any prefix, seems to occur in the parable in oi ainghāth-ni owok kro-ah na-theh, he him swine to-tend sent; perhaps also in ochingāh thā eahmeah, he was in want, if eahmeah can be explained as ai-ā mai-ah, to eat was not; compare however eyaih-yan, food, in Mr. Houghton's dictionary. The suffix ong seems to occur in ā-hai-ong-ko, to be merry. The form ending in āi or āi-sho, probably identical with the future, is used in several places. Thus, ko-hon lui-yāi ting-khin-ai, the stomach to fill he wished; nang chau a-thon-ai-cho heya, thy son to-be is-unfit; kei-ni pyā-wai-sho thomai, our feasting good is, it is good that we should feast. In the list of words we find another infinitive ending in na; thus, tan-ei-na, to be.

Participles.—Fryer mentions the relative participle ending in gu, for which Houghton gives the suffixes gü or kü and di. The latter further mentions a present participle ending in $t\ddot{u}$, an adverbial participle ending in $n\ddot{a}$ and having the meaning of a conditional, and a conjunctive participle ending in na, aih-gü, or aih-gü-plī-dá. Before this na a suffix pa is inserted, or $h\bar{a}$ is prefixed to na if the participle refers to the first person, and di if it refers to the second or third person. A conjunctive participle ending in agu, after, also occurs in the fable given by Fryer and reprinted below.

In the parable and the Chittagong list we find the following forms. A suffix ong or iong seems to form Adverbial participles; thus, khom-iong, joining. Compare the postposition ong, with. In keiah imhaion ekhani nang-ko, me to being all thine is, a similar suffix on seems to form a Relative participle. Conjunctive participles are formed by adding a suffix nā or nāk; thus, mal-nā, beating; khed-nāk, pitying. Often la-che or lāche is added; thus, ai-na-la-che, eating; thognā-lā-che, i.e., probably thong-nā-lā-che,

arising. Another suffix of the conjunctive participle ends in $ba-l\bar{a}$ or $be-l\bar{a}$, and seems to correspond to Mr. Houghton's participle in pa-na. Thus, thoong- $ba-l\bar{a}-jeh$, having arisen; chon-ung-be-l\bar{a}, having run. The form $mal-dek-sh\hat{a}$, having struck, seems also to be a conjunctive participle. Chet\bar{u}-lach\bar{e}, going, apparently corresponds to the participle ending in $t\bar{u}$ mentioned by Mr. Houghton. In ochingah kanifai-pek, he dividing gave, there is probably no participle, but kanifai-pek is a compound verb. I am also uncertain about chet-cha, gone, in No. 219. The same suffix seems to occur in owok-l\bar{a} ai-cho, swine by eaten, and in anila \bar{a}lolo cho-powoi, which perhaps should be corrected to \bar{a}ni-la \bar{a}-lolo-cho-po-woi, he having come to senses said, but I am unable to analyse the single words.

A Noun of agency seems to be formed by means of the suffix di; thus, $l\bar{a}i \cdot tan - di$, a cultivator; $m\bar{a}$ -keong-di, goat-tender, shepherd.

There is no Passive voice. Instead of 'I am struck' we find 'he strikes me', or 'I suffer a striking.' Houghton gives khán and Fryer sun-ey as the verb used to form compounds with the meaning of a passive. The Chittagong list gives khe mal khe ke mē, I am struck; yā khē mal khē mē, I was struck; khel mal khamei shá, I shall be struck. These forms perhaps contain a verb khám corresponding to Mr. Houghton's khán; thus, kyē mal-khám-ai-shá, I beating-suffer-shall. In the parable we find āni krok pungdung ko-bun-āl, he was lost, now he is found again, lit. I found him again.

Compound verbs are freely formed in order to modify the meaning; thus, ho-pek, said, perhaps corresponding to hau, say, and pek, give, in the vocabularies of Houghton and Fryer; ka-ni-fai-pek, divided and gave; compare phē, divide, in Houghton's vocabulary. Fryer remarks that the letter n frequently precedes verbal roots. To this n corresponds a prefix beginning with n in the parable; thus, na-thek, send; ni-honjak, wasted all; no-khom-ai, joined. Another prefix po seems to occur in nolāi ko-pohuth, sin I did. Houghton and Fryer mention several verbs which are added in order to form compounds with a modified meaning; thus, bo, to return; dat or dhāk, to dare; kho or thē, to be able; la, to get, to must; sē, to cause; woi, to wish, etc. In the parable we find āl, again; āhe, to be about; ē or i, apparently only emphasising, or, according to Mr. Houghton, conveying the sense of the middle voice; jak, all; and nānā, much. Thus, tho-wāl, came back; ku-du-āhe, I am dying; khe ke tan-ē-ai, I may be; komi-ong, cohabiting, compare Houghton's khān-ē; ni-hon-jak, wasted all; mānpok-nānā, abused much, was angry, etc.

Negative.—Houghton and Fryer both state that a hard initial consonant is softened in the negative verb, not, however, among the Northern Chins. Houghton mentions several negative particles, most of them containing the syllable $n\ddot{u}$, i.e., the ordinary suffix \ddot{u} with n prefixed. He also states that in the negative verb no distinction is made, as a rule, between the present, past, and future tenses. According to Fryer the negative particle is n, m, or mb, and may be prefixed to the verb, or to the suffix, or to both. In the parable the negative particle is \ddot{a} ; thus, ai-peg-ah, to eat gave not; he- $y\ddot{a}$, it is not proper; compare pi- \ddot{a} , bad, in the list. In $heongn\ddot{a}$, disobeyed not, n seems to be prefixed to \ddot{a} , if ngn is not simply a miswriting for ng. The negative \ddot{a} perhaps corresponds to the suffix ai which, according to Houghton, is prefixed to di in order to form negative participles. Thus $l\ddot{o}$ -wai-di khlaung, the man who does not come. According to the same authority negative participles are also formed by prefixing a and suffixing $k\ddot{o}n$ or $k\ddot{o}$, boi or $b\ddot{o}$ -boi. In the parable $w\ddot{a}ng$ -a- $l\ddot{a}$ seems to be a negative participle; thus,

āni im-dukā wāng-ā-lā, he house-into not-entering. Another negative the seems to occur in nāng kai-ni mā-cho hu-māth ā-pek-the, you me goat-young one gave not.

The Interrogative particle is mo or $m\ddot{u}$ and, according to Houghton, also li. There is no instance in the parable. Another particle $d\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ seems to occur in No. 221. See Interrogative pronouns, above.

The Order of words is extremely inconsistent in the parable. The regular order, however, seems to be subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

Difference of dialect.

The preceding sketch shows that there are at least two dialects of Shö,—a northern spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and a southern spoken in Sandoway and the neighbouring districts. Some of the principal points where the two dialects differ will be mentioned in what follows. For convenience's sake I have used the following abbreviations:—

Ch.=forms occurring in the specimen and list received from Chittagong.

F. =Major Fryer's grammar.

H. = Mr. Houghton's grammar.

Ho.=Captain Phayre's list, published by Hodgson, 1854.

Ph.=Captain Phayre's old list, published 1841.

I have drawn attention to the fact that we often find r in Ch., corresponding to l in F. and H. We find the same uncertainty in the old lists; thus, khro, moon in Ph., but khlau in Ho. Captain Phayre remarks that l often is pronounced almost as y, and in his old list he gives $ky\bar{a}ng$, man, corresponding to Ho. $kl\bar{a}ng$. He thinks that the word $khy\bar{a}ng$ or Khyeng, the name of the people, may be a corruption of the word for 'man.' All these facts show that the pronunciation cannot be distinct.

In many instances we find final m and n interchanged; thus, Ch. alhom, way; Ho. $l\bar{a}m$; H. $alh\bar{a}n$; Ph. lang: F. alhem, big; H. $lh\bar{e}n$: Ch. and Ho. im, house; F. iqm; H. in: Ch. F., Ho. thum, three; H. thum, etc.

Sometimes both forms occur in the same dialect; thus, Ch. thom and thon, to be suitable, to become; F. khoam and khon, to meet with, etc. In Ch. mu-tho, a female, as against H. na-tho, the two sounds are initial. It will be seen that n prevails in H., and I have not found any instance of a final m in this dialect. In the northernmost dialect, on the other hand, final m is most frequent. It seems probable that m is in most cases the original sound, and that it has been changed to n under the influence of Burmese, where final m becomes n or ng.

The numeral 'ten' is given as ngha or ha in F. and H. Ngh and h are thus interchangeable, and the form ngat or $ng\bar{a}t$, one, in Ch. can thus be identified with H. $h\hat{a}$, and F. hot. Considering the inconsistent spelling in Ch. there is no difficulty in assuming that ngat is written for $ngh\hat{a}t$. Ho. gives $nh\bar{a}t$, while Lewin has mhat, corresponding to the form occurring in the parable. Compare also Buchanan poo-nho, five; F. and H. ngho.

Sometimes l and n are interchanged, thus in the suffix of the agent, Ch. $l\bar{a}$, F. na, H. $n\bar{u}$; compare Lai ne, Banjōgī ni, Siyin $n\bar{a}$. The l in Ch. is probably false and due to the inability of the interpreter to distinguish the two sounds.

Other discrepancies are due to the use of prefixes; thus, Ch. and Ho. thī, iron; F. and H. nthi: Ch. lū-ki, head; Ho. lū; F. ma-lu; H. a-lū, etc.

In the declension of nouns the most important difference is to be found in the formation of the plural. This point is, however, of small importance, there being no real suffixes of the plural. And the number of words which convey a plural sense is, of course, so great that a comparison is here impossible.

With regard to adjectives we have found the same particle of comparison in Ch. and H., while F. seems to differ.

The personal pronouns are, broadly speaking, the same in Ch., F., and H. The greatest difference is to be found in the third person, but is there also insignificant. The interrogative pronouns, on the other hand, are quite different in Ch. from the forms in F., H. Ch. is, however, very confused, and the form u-yam, who, in Ch., and u-liam in Ho. might perhaps be the same as a-ni, i.e., probably a+ the demonstrative pronoun ni, in F. H.

The difference in the conjugation of verbs is greater. Ch. uses the root alone to denote present and past tenses, while H. adds the suffix \ddot{u} , and F. u in the present, and form the past tense by means of a suffix ni, with the same addition \ddot{u} or u. With this addition we may compare o in Tibetan, \ddot{u} in Khāmtī, Shān, etc. The future, on the other hand, is identical in Ch., F., and H., and this fact is of special importance. The other discrepancies in the conjugation of verbs are of relatively small importance. In the formation of the negative F. and H. state that a hard initial is softened. This principle does not occur in other languages of the Kuki-Chin group. The prefixed negative in F. agrees with the Burmese negative, while the negative in the Kuki-Chin group is suffixed. Compare Introduction, p. 19.

Such are the chief differences between the northern and the southern dialects. The dialect spoken in the Minbu district is again different from that of the Sandoway district. And there are also many other dialects, but Mr. Houghton states that the differences are philologically unimportant.

I have printed the Parable of the Prodigal Son as I have received it. I have in a few places subjoined, within parentheses, corrected forms. As a second specimen I have reprinted a short fable according to the text given by Major Fryer, and have added an interlinear translation. In the list of words I have made no corrections, but I have added the corresponding forms from Messrs. Fryer and Houghton, and these make it possible in many cases to see what is the meaning of the corrupt forms in the Chittagong list. I have retained the sign a to denote the sound of a in 'organ' in the words taken from Major Fryer.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

SHÖ OR KHYANG.

(DISTRICT, CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

SPECIMEN I.

châ-lā māth-ā ā-chau puchung-ni mhai. Mai-nhi-la-je no-lek Them-two-of younger sonchild male-two were. Man one-to pek.' Nang ' Pāu kāi-ko ke kon kāy-ā hopek, ā-po-ā give.' Hisshare me-to me-of mysaid, ' Father father-to. Kro-khong-ah no-lek a-chāu ochingah ka-ni-fai-pek. nāng-ni-āh won Time-short-in younger sondivided-gave. them-two-to he property chet. Oi-āh oi-krong-ong ā-lhom-lo-wā pre-āh pongiyal ai-nghāth-ni went. There he country-to way-far-in and(?)gathered-all won ai-khokhā ai-mitiah a-thon. metia Ochingah ni-hon-jak. famine goods that-village-in arose. Heafter-spent(?) wasted-all. khrong māth-ā oi-pre-āh Oi-khrong-ya eah-meah. Ochingāh thā one-with that-country-in food-was-not(?). Heman Himna-theh. Oi-lā owok-lā ai-cho owok kro-ah ainghāthni Oi no-khom-ai. Hepigs-by eatenhim swine tend-to sent .. Hejoined. ai-peg-ah. Ani-lā ko-hon-lui-yāi ting-khinai. U-lā-hi āni-āh ai-na-lache food-gave-not. HeAnyone him-to belly-to-fill intended. eating ku āgnā-chegnā (i.e. āngā-chengā) pā-ho Kāi-po ālolo-cho-po-woi, how-much servants-to 'My-father's many. said-to-himself(?) thognā-(i.e. thongā-)lāche Keāi bong om-i; kāi-chā mut-ā ku-du-āhe. arisen-having I hunger-with I-dying-am. bread is; I ā-po-cheng-āh kā-chet-ai oi-ah ko-hopek-ai, "O-pāu, keāi nādāgā-sing-ā no-lāi God-to sinI-go-will him-to I-say-will, "O-father, \boldsymbol{I} nāng chegnā(i.e. chengā); nāng-chau ā-thon-āi-cho heyā; ko-pohuth, keāi thy-son to-beis-not: theeI-committed, Ι to: ā-tho-āi." Āni thoong-ba-lā-jeh singya (i.e. singā) opong ā-po nāng kai-ni his-father make." Hearisen-having tothouservant(?) āni ā-po-lā ā-mu. Ā-po-lā khed-nāk, Āni ā-lhom-lo-wā ā-mi-khoāh, kāi. he-was-time-at his went. father he-saw. His-father Heway-far-at pitying, Ā-cho-lā āi-ni-lhā-je ā-nhom. chonung-be-la, ā-cho nhālung krau, he-kissed. His-son his-son's neck-on andrunning, fell, 'O-pāu, ko-po-huth, no-lai hopek, keāi nādāgā sing-ā ā-po-ā said, O-father, I heaven sinI-committed his-father-to to

nāng singnā, keai nāng-cho a-thon-ai-sho he-yā.' Ā-po-lā āgnā ah (i.e. ā-ngā-ā) theeto-be I thy-son is-not.' His-father servants-to 'Iu ho-pek, poi ā-lau, āni-āh sau-sok, áni kuth-ung koi-chip said, ' Cloth goodbring, him-on put, his hand-on ring māth thon. āni ā-khung fānāp thon, che-nang-kei āhai-ongko āini-lhā-je his put, oneput, foot-on shoecome to-make-merry kāpao (i.e. ka-pyā-ong); e-kung-um kei chau ā-du-pungdung ā-heng-yāl, to-feast; for he-dead-was-after he-came-alive-again, mysonāni krok-pungdung ko-bun-āl.' Ānhi pyā-al. he lost-after I-found-again. They feasted.

Āi-chā āni chāu chāng-cha lāi-yāh a-mai. Āni im-kenā thowa-thai-Nowhisthe-elder sonfield-in he-was. Hehouse-near drew-nighkho-yā ni-thon ni-dung Āni-la āgnā (i.e. ā-ngā) māth pānāi āinilhāje ā-iok. whendancing music he-heard. servant calledoneand e-hi. 'E-thonivom?' Āgnalā (i.e. ā-ngā-lā) hopek, 'Nāng no-leck-cho he-asked, 'What-is-the-matter?' The-servant 'Thy younger-brother said, tho-wal, nāng-po-lā poi-pek, e-kungum āni khoāth-cho āni ka-bun-āl.' came-back, for thy-father feast-gave, safe-being hehimgot-again.' A-tā mān-pok-nānā. Āni im-dukā wāng-ā-lā, e-kungum āni The-elder-brother abused-loudly. Hehouse-into entering-not, thereforehis ā-po pranga ā-kāi, ainilhaje ā-pol. Āni-la hopek, Keāi ni-yā ā-po-āh father outside he-went, and he-entreated. He his-father-to said, these ku kum keāi āgnā (i.e. ā-ngā) nāng, nāng khau heongnā keāi. nang many years I servant thy, thyorder disobeyed-not I, thou kai-ni mā-cho hu-māth ā-pek-the kā-khām-bo-nāng kolo kāvāipu. Nang megoat-young onegavest-not my-friends-with merry to-feast. Thychau mutho krak māth-ong khom-i-ong wān-thong āi-kungām pai son woman bad-conducted one-with cohabiting all-lost him-for feast math-a na-pek-nang.' Ā-po-lā ā-chau hopek, 'O-chau, nāng kai-ni ko-nāng thou-gavest. His-father his-son-to said, O-son, thou me nha-mai. Kei-ah imhaion, ekha-ni nāng-ko. Kei-ni pyā-wai-sho thomai. thou-art. Me-to being all-this thine. We-two to-feast good-is, ekungum nang no-lek-cho ā-du-pungdung ā-heng-yāl, āni for thyyounger-brother he-died-after he-is-alive-again, hekrok-pungdung ko-bun-āl.' lost-was-after I-found-again.

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

SHÖ OR KHYANG.

SPECIMEN II.

(DISTRICT, SANDOWAY, ARAKAN.)

FABLE OF THE TWO WILD DOGS AND THE TIGER.

(Major G. E. Fryer, 1875.)

Note.—The vowel a denotes the sound of a in 'organ'; the acute accent indicates the rising tone, the grave accent the falling tone.

pon-ā ōn-ù-hói. Klā zūm-nhī agū pom-ūi-Yōkhā pōm-ūi forest-in lived. Timeafter forest-dogforest-dog twoFormerly Na-wō pōm-ūi-nü zūn-nhī a-tank-ey-ū. zūn-hōt hān forest-dog-female were-born. They-quarrelled theytwomaleone phé-ey-ù-hói. pōm-ūi-nü zün-nhī pūm-hōt-zūn-hōt hau-ey-nü-agù divided. forest-dog-female twoone-one talked-having 'Kie ka khōn-ū, zūn-hōt kiuān-agū, a-nü-na, holai Pom-ūi-hān remaining, $^{\iota}I$ suffering Forest-dog-male one the-mother, Ifound, buan-ey-ei a-shang-ey-u.' A-pō-na, 'Kie ka-payā kie dön ka Ī get-shall it-proper-is. The-father, my-wife-of only II ka-buan-ey-ei a-shang-ey-u.' boi-bō, kie dön Na-wō na-I onlyI-get-shall it-proper-is.' They-quarrelled theymaster-am, akyé-tāyi-na, ōn-duan-ā Phō-agù akié-tāyi sit-ù-hói. hau-nü-agù the-tiger, abode-to they-went. Arrived-having tigertalked-having a-nü-ā pūm-hōt, na-phō-t, tō a-sō zūn-nhī, 'Kie ōn-duan-ā mother-to one, you-came, thoseyoung-ones two. abode-to' My kiuān-agù zūn-höt pūm-hōt pe-brī-agū pom-ui-han $s\bar{o}$ a-pō-ā to-give-finished-having forest-dog-male young oneremaining father-to oneyō na-sō a-pō-na khon-ū a-phē-ū. A-nü-na a-mlüng-ā their-child's corpse the-father The-mother he-allotted. middle-in severed n-shang-ey-nū.* na-sei-ei níkhā kất-ù-hói, 'akié-tāyi ō, mhū-agù not-proper-is. thou-cut-shouldst0, thus 'tiger cried, seen-having bō-ù-hói. akié mhōn-gōn-ā tong-ū Na-sō yō returned. threwbefore corpse tiger Their-son's

FREE TRANSLATION OF THE FOREGOING.

In the olden time, two wild dogs lived in a forest, and after a while had three young ones, a male and two females. Subsequently they quarrelled, and on dividing (their

property) each took one of the females. The male which remained the mother claimed saying, 'He is my share, I have borne him about with me, with great suffering, therefore I ought to have him.' The father said, 'I being the husband and lord over my wife, ought to have him.' Thus disputing they went to the abode of a tiger (to have their case decided). On arriving there, the tiger said, 'So you are come to me, are you!' and having given one of the young ones to the father, and one to the mother, he cut the remaining male down the middle, and gave half to each of them. The parents looking on the dead body of their young one, lamented bitterly and said, 'My lord tiger, you ought not to have divided in this way.' Then they threw down the dead body of their young one before the tiger, and went away.

KHAMI.

The Khamis are settled on the Koladyne River in Arakan, and on the upper part of the Sangu River, in the Bohmong Chief's circle of the Chittagong Hill Tracts. The Arakanese Khamis state that they were formerly settled in the hills now occupied by the Shös. According to Major Hughes they lived in the hills about the middle of the nineteenth century. Sir Arthur Phayre found them in the hills bordering the Koladyne River, and stated (in 1854) that they had not been settled there more than five or six generations. They had gradually expelled the Mrū, and were themselves driven westward and southward.

Their number in Burma, at the Census of 1891, was 14,126. About 500 Khamis have been returned from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, but Captain Lewin states that 'their numbers fluctuate, as year by year some families either go to, or return from, their relatives living on the Koladan in Arracan. The journey is always made by a well-known pass across the hills, leading from the Sungoo River over Modho Tong. The distance is a short two days' journey.'

According to Sir Arthur Phayre there are two divisions of the tribe, the Kamis and the Kumis, which are called Awa Kumi and Aphya Kumi by the Arracanese. Awa means 'mouth of a river,' and aphya, 'the source.' Mr. Houghton was, however, not able to hear of any such people as the Kumis in Arakan. In the texts now received from Chittagong we find the word written khu-mi and khai-mi. The correct form seems to be kha-mi, and this word is also used in the general sense of 'man,' 'human being,' the abstract idea of a man in general being unfamiliar to this and other connected tribes in the same manner as the abstract ideas of 'hand,' 'foot,' etc. The Burmese and Arakanese usually call this people kwey-mi, dog's tail, a nickname which Captain Lewin thinks is due to the fact that the Khami wears 'a very scanty breech cloth, which is so adjusted, that a long end hangs down behind them in the manner of a tail.' Mr. Houghton suggests that the form Kumi is a corruption of khwey-mi.

The Rev. L. Stilson states that the tribe, which he calls Kemī, does not extend farther south than about twenty miles north of Akyab. In stature this people are generally below the average of the inhabitants of the country. In features, they resemble the Burmese, but they are mostly of a lighter complexion. They wear but little clothing. According to Major Hughes they are divided into 22 clans, and they live in numerous small villages. They are said to be an industrious race. The following account is abstracted from Sir W. Hunter's Statistical Account of Bengal:—

Owing to their proximity to the independent and predatory tribes, the Kumis are more warlike than the majority of the hill people within our boundary. Their villages are generally situated on the top of a lofty hill, and are regularly stockaded and fortified. The village has generally but one door, and this is defended by a winding passage trebly stockaded. The door itself is of solid timber, studded from top to bottom with thickset bamboo spikes. Outside the village are lofty look-out stations placed at intervals, where a watch is kept day and night; the steep slopes of the hill are rendered difficult of ascent by chevaux de frise of bamboo, while the ravines below are strewn with caltrops. In one village Captain Lewin noticed a most extraordinary stronghold in a tree. It was a small house built of shot-proof logs of timber, and elevated about a hundred feet from the ground in the branches of an enormous tree that grew in the village. The hut was capable of holding about twenty persons; it was loopholed all round and in the floor, and was reached by a ladder which could be drawn up when necessary. The Kumi houses are all built of bamboo, with a thatch of palm-shaped leaves found in the jungle, and are elevated eight or ten feet from the ground.

'The religion of the Kumis is the same as that of the other Toungthá ["Sons of the Hills"] tribes, and they offer sacrifices to the spirits of the hills and rivers.'

An account of the laws prevailing among the Khamis has been published by Major Hughes.

There is no written literature. The dialect spoken in the Akyab district, Arakan, has been reduced to writing by the Rev. L. Stilson, of the American Baptist Mission, who printed a reader and a spelling book about the year 1850. But the books remained unused as the mission was withdrawn from the Khami territory.

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A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a list of standard words and phrases have been received from the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Both are very corrupt, and the remarks on Khami grammar, which are based on these texts, are given with the utmost reserve.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is very inconsistent, and very little can be said regarding the sounds of the language. A spelling like who for $h\bar{u}$, which occurs twice, shows that no reasonable system of transliteration can be expected. It would be of no use to mention all the irregularities in the spelling, and I shall only draw attention to such

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points as seem to give a clue to the actual pronunciation. A is sometimes interchangeable with o; thus, $t\bar{a}$ -ya, and ki-yo, belly; $t\bar{a}i$ -cha and $t\bar{a}i$ -cho, sister; a and o, to, in. It is probable that a is, in such cases, written for \tilde{a} . Before n and m, a and \tilde{a} are interchangeable with u or \bar{u} . Thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ and nung, thou; dan-di and $d\bar{u}ng-di$, young; nām-pūi and nūm-pūi, woman; ang-thāo and ung-da, to stand, etc. In nūm-pūi the \bar{u} seems to be correct; compare, e.g., Rāngkhōl $n\bar{u}$ - $p\bar{a}ng$; but in most of the other instances connected languages usually have a or \bar{a} . A is also interchangeable with eo; thus, kang-nga and keong-o, horse; tlangwa and tleongo, than, the particle of comparison; ya and yeo, go, come, etc. The actual sound is perhaps ö. The same sound is perhaps intended in khāi and kheu, put. An e is probably meant in words such as pa, pāy, pai, pey, and $py\bar{a}$, to give. It is however also possible that the vowel itself is very indistinctly pronounced, its colour being influenced by the surrounding vowels. In a similar way we find chah, chāah, chāi and chwey, to go. Ai is interchangeable with u in khai-mi or khu-mi, a man. This is the name of the people, the word for 'male' being nung-chu. The form of the word which is used in Arakan is kha-mi, and the same sound is probably meant in the Chittagong texts. Au and ei are both found in dau and dei, to die. The northern dialects have an i in this word, and so also Taungtha a-shi. But Shö has du or $d\ddot{u}$, and the latter sound is perhaps also meant in the specimens. Im, a house, is perhaps also written for üm. We may infer this from the form um given by Sir Arthur Phayre. In khi, khio, and kheo, to, from, we apparently have the same sound, the ii being in fact an i pronounced with the rounding of the lips peculiar to o. In the same manner an \ddot{o} is effected when the lips are rounded while pronouncing e, and we have perhaps this sound in the word long, lhong, or leong. \bar{U} is apparently written for o in chū=cho, child, etc. In other words it seems to represent an ü, as, for instance, in the female suffix $n\bar{u}$. This suffix is generally, in connected languages, identical with the word for 'mother'. In the list we find neh, mother, for which Captain Lewin gives nūoi. Compare Shö nū and nü. Latter says that nhu, two, is pronounced nhü; thus also \bar{u} in $pl\bar{u}$, four, $t\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{u}$, six, and $s\bar{e}$ - $r\bar{u}$, seven. The diphthongs $\bar{u}i$ and ue are perhaps written for the same sound; thus, tūi, water. The form tü actually occurs in one of the lists published by Mr. Houghton. In a similar way we find thue and thu, to say (Phayre thoi), perhaps for thü; ung-mue, name, probably for ang-mü, compare Shö a-mi. 'Four' is $pl\bar{u}$, i.e., $p-l\bar{u}$. In connected languages this numeral takes the form li, and $pl\bar{u}$ is therefore probably written for $pl\ddot{u}$.

Two concurrent vowels are perhaps contracted in *nhu* if this word is written for *nai-o* or *na-o*, is not; thus, *kāeh nāng chopo-lon nhu*, I thy son (to be) not worthy. *Nhu* can, however, also be explained as *n-hu*. Compare the suffix *u* or *hu* of finite tenses in Shö. Euphonic *y* and *w* are sometimes inserted between two vowels; thus, *pya-yo*, gave not; *pai-ya*, to give; *ang-thā-wā*, I will arise.

Final consonants are sometimes silent; thus deik and dei, to die; $ning-th\bar{u}n$ and $ning-th\bar{u}$, back, etc. Latter remarks that all final consonants are silent; they are formed in the mouth, but not pronounced. In other words, they are semi-consonants or tone-indicators. H is especially very often added at the end of a word; thus, $k\bar{a}i-\bar{a}h$, me-to; thue-pah and thue-pa, said; $\bar{a}m-n\bar{a}h$ and $\bar{a}m-n\bar{a}$, brother.

K seems sometimes to be written for ch; thus $t\bar{a}$ -ko and $ch\bar{a}$, to go; keppo and chopo, son; $kinn\bar{u}$ and $chin\bar{u}$, daughter. Khuiah, I will say, is certainly only a miswriting for thue- \bar{a} , or $th\bar{u}$ - \bar{a} , I will say. D is perhaps written for n in dung for nung or $n\bar{a}ng$, thou.

N is sometimes interchangeable with m and with ng; thus, am-yeo and an-yeo, he went; $n\bar{a}ai$ and $ng\bar{a}ai$, father; $b\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ and $b\bar{a}ng\bar{a}$, in, etc. In the specimen gn is always written instead of ng. This sound seems also to be interchangeable with h; thus, $h\bar{a}$, to get; but $k\bar{a}i$ gna-ai kothue, I getting property, my share. Latter has $n\bar{a}$, to get.

Both w and v occur; thus, van-reh and wan-reh, together with. The pronunciation is of course here the same in both cases. It seems, however, from the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton, that both sounds exist in the language.

The writing of the aspirates is very inconsistent; thus, $\bar{a}m$ -pho and $\bar{a}m$ -po, father; $ph\bar{a}k\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$, to strike, etc.

There are also instances of interchange between hard and soft consonants; thus, palun-thung and bolungthung, merry; ang-thāo and ung-da, to arise, etc.

A consonant between vowels is often doubled; thus, hunni instead of $h\bar{u}$ -ni, he. This is probably only a peculiarity of spelling, and does not mark a different pronunciation of the consonant.

One of the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton shows that the language possesses at least two tones, the light and the heavy one. The tones are not marked in the Chittagong texts.

Articles.—There are no articles. A word long, leong, or lhong seems to be used as an indefinite article with nouns denoting human beings. Thus, khu-mi lhong-reh, one man. Leong is a generic prefix with numerals. In $k\bar{e}ppo$ leong $m\bar{a}$ $y\bar{e}$ $r\bar{e}$, how many sons? it is used in a similar way. The numeral $h\bar{a}$ - $r\bar{e}$, one, is used as an indefinite article in No. 138 and f.

Nouns.—Several prefixes are used before nouns, apparently without any meaning of their own. Thus, we find $\bar{a}m$ -po, father; $\bar{a}m$ - $n\bar{a}$, younger brother; ung-mue, name; ka-nao, neck; ka- $n\bar{u}$, ear; ki-ni, sun; ka-si, star; ka-wa and ta-wa, bird; ki-yo and $t\bar{a}$ -ya, belly; le- $b\bar{a}o$, mouth; $p\bar{a}$ -lai, tongue; chi-khi, deer, etc.

Gender.—Gender is only distinguished in the case of animate beings, and only when it does not appear from the context. In the case of human beings different words are often used; thus, $ng\bar{a}\bar{a}i$ and po, father; neh, i.e., probably $n\ddot{u}$, mother: $y\bar{a}$ and $n\bar{a}$, brother; $tai\text{-}ch\dot{a}$, sister: $n\bar{u}m\text{-}ch\bar{u}$, man; $n\bar{u}m\text{-}p\bar{u}i$, woman. The two last words are also used as prefixes in order to distinguish the gender; thus $n\bar{u}m\text{-}ch\bar{u}$ $ch\bar{u}$, (i.e., cho), man young, son; $n\bar{u}m\text{-}p\bar{u}i$ $ch\bar{u}$, daughter. The common suffixes in the case of human beings seem to be po, male, and $n\bar{u}$, female. Thus, cho-po, child male, son; $kinn\bar{u}$ and $ch\bar{v}nn\bar{u}$, daughter. The form $ch\bar{v}nn\bar{u}$ is probably more correct than $kinn\bar{u}$. It consists of $ch\bar{v}=cho$, child, and the female suffix $n\bar{u}$. If the \bar{v} is not only written for o, it must be due to the following vowel which is probably \bar{u} , and not u. In the case of animals we find the male suffixes $p\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{u}$, for large animals, and lo, for smaller animals, and $n\bar{u}$ for the female. Thus, $sh\bar{v}$ -ra $p\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{u}$, a bull; $sh\bar{v}$ -ra $n\bar{u}$, a cow: \bar{u} i lo, a dog; \bar{u} - $n\bar{u}$, a bitch. The male suffix for birds is $l\bar{u}$; thus, \bar{u} - $l\bar{u}$, a cock. The word go-gro-ma, a harlot, is Burmese, and the female suffix ma does not occur in Khami.

Number.—We have apparently three numbers, singular, dual, and plural. The dual of nouns is always denoted by adding the numeral 'two'. But there is apparently a dual suffix hoi, which occurs after pronouns, and is also found in Shö. The plural suffixes are apparently nai and nā. Sir Arthur Phayre states that noi means 'much', and every word meaning 'much', 'many', etc., can probably be added in order to convey the meaning of plurality. Such words are perhaps bai-ba and kē. Bai-ba

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seems to be connected with bang, the common plural suffix in Sir George Campbell's list. The following are instances of the plural, ām-po nā, fathers; ām-po nai-nā kheo, from fathers; nūm-pūi hoi-nā nai, good women; khai-mi bai-ba tlong-hoi kē, good men, etc.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. The postposition o, in, to, is, however, sometimes added to the object of a transitive verb; thus, hu-ni dung-di-o pā-khā-nā-nung, his son (I) struck much. The suffix lah seems to denote the agent as the subject of a transitive verb. It does not, however, occur more than once in the specimen. Thus, cho-po-lah ām-po-na thue, the-son his-father-to said. It is translated 'eldest' in this place, as if it were the same as lan.

The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, kāi ām-prā chīnnū kāi lā, my uncle's daughter I have married. But we also find a suffix e or o added to the governed noun; thus, nāng po-e immo, thy father's house-in; kung-leong keong-o gin, the white horse's saddle. The corresponding suffixes in the Arakanese dialects of Khami are ung and in.

Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:— \bar{a} or o, in, to, from; $b\bar{a}ng$, and $b\bar{a}ng$ - \bar{a} , in, at; inna, from; khi, khio, and kheo, to, from; mo-o, before; na, to; ning- $th\bar{u}$ -o, behind; ya, to, etc. The forms leo and $il\bar{a}o$, which are translated 'of,' in the list, are probably no postpositions but a substantive meaning 'property' or something of that sort. They do not occur in the parable. They may also be the suffix of the agent.

Adjectives.—I have found the following prefixes used before adjectives: \bar{a} , in \bar{a} -chāng, high; $k\bar{e}$, in $k\bar{e}ss\bar{a}$, near; and pa or pha, in pha-lo, far; thus, hi-inna Kashmir $pr\bar{e}$ pa-lo mo, here-from Kashmir country far? is it far from here to Kashmir?

Adjectives generally follow the noun they qualify and postpositions and suffixes are then added to them, and not to the qualified noun. Thus, $k\bar{a}i\ \bar{a}m$ -po (written $\bar{a}m$ -p \bar{a}) $h\bar{u}$ -ni im-cho-o om, my father that house-small-in is. Sometimes the adjective precedes; thus, hoi ka-ni, best robe. Sometimes the suffix $n\bar{a}$ is added to the adjective; thus, khaimi hoi-nā leong-rē, a good man. This $n\bar{a}$ is probably the suffix of a relative participle. The negative particle is inserted before this $n\bar{a}$; thus, dung-di leong-rē hoi-e-nā leong-rē, a bad boy.

The particle of comparison is tlang-wa or tleong-o; thus, $h\bar{u}ni$ tai-cho tleong-o \bar{a} -cheang, he sister than high. The suffix $k\bar{e}$ may be added to the adjective in the comparative, and $t\bar{e}p$ in the superlative; thus, $h\bar{u}ni$ tlang-wa \bar{a} -chang- $k\bar{e}$, him than high-more; hoi- $t\bar{e}p$, good-most, best. Campbell gives noi-hoi, better; hoi-na-hoi, best; and a-shiang- $b\bar{e}$, highest.

Numerals.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They follow the noun they qualify. Instead of \bar{a} -rey, one, the proper form seems to be $h\bar{a}$ or $h\bar{a}$ -re, in No. 138 ff. Other dialects have han and $h\bar{a}$. $R\bar{e}$ seems to be optionally added to all numerals. The form $p\bar{a}$, five, seems to be abbreviated from pa-nga; compare Taungtha p'nga, Chinbök mha. The p in $pl\bar{u}$ is a prefix. The same is the case with $t\bar{e}$ in $t\bar{e}$ -r \bar{u} , and $t\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{a}$ -ka, probably also with $s\bar{e}$ in $s\bar{e}$ -ra, and $t\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{a}$ -ya. I have only found two generic prefixes leong and $tl\bar{a}p$. Leong is also written long, lhong, and lon. It is used when the numeral refers to a person; thus, cho-po long-nhu-reh, two sons. But it is also used alone after nouns; thus, $\bar{a}m$ -p \bar{u} leong kheo, from a father; $k\bar{e}ppo$ leong $m\bar{a}$ y \bar{e} r \bar{e} , sons how many? The prefix $tl\bar{a}p$ seems to be used with reference to money; thus, $h\bar{u}$ -ni- \bar{e} v \bar{a} ng $tl\bar{a}p$ nu-r \bar{e}

ba-khai, that-of the-price rupees two a-half. The word $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$, a rupee, is thus replaced by $tl\bar{a}p$.

Pronouns.—There is great confusion in the list with regard to the *Personal pronouns*. The following forms seem to be certain:—

Singular,-

kāi, I. nāng, thou. hū-ni, he.

 $k\bar{a}i$, my. $n\bar{a}ng$, thy. $h\bar{u}$ -ni and $h\bar{u}$ -ni-o, his.

Plural,-

 $k\bar{a}i\text{-}ch\bar{e}$, we. $n\bar{a}ng\text{-}ch\bar{e}$, you. $h\bar{u}\text{-}ni\text{-}ch\bar{e}$, they.

First person.—The form $k\bar{a}i$ -la, of me, is probably the case of the agent. The form $k\bar{a}i$ -ma, is said to mean 'mine.' A dual form seems to occur in $k\bar{a}i$ -hoi kon- \bar{a} , we should-make-merry, and perhaps in $n\bar{a}ng$ $k\bar{a}eh$ kaihow wanreh, thou art ever with me. I understand this sentence as follows: $n\bar{a}ng$ $k\bar{a}i$ $k\bar{a}i$ -hoi wan- $r\bar{e}$, thou I we-two together (are).

Second person.—The list gives dungdi, thou and you. For 'your' it gives dung-di nung-khi. The specimen always has $n\bar{a}ng$, and the d is probably only a miswriting. In the specimen we also find $n\bar{a}ng$, thine. The form $n\bar{a}ng$ -chē, you, is inferred from No. 160, nung-kē dung-di tē, you are. The writing of k for ch has been noted under Pronunciation. In No. 220 we find the form nung-ē, thy, i.e., $n\bar{a}ng$ with the genitive suffix \bar{e} . See Nouns above.

Third person.—The list gives $h\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ and hunni, he. I have written $h\bar{u}$ -ni with the specimen, but I am not certain about the correct spelling, the forms ha-nai, ha-ne, and ho-nai being recorded from Arakau. But ni also occurs in the curious form ni-ni-van, for his sake. It is probably identical with the demonstrative pronoun ni which occurs in many connected languages. $H\bar{u}$ is also used alone as a personal pronoun; thus, $h\bar{u}$ -o, him to, in No. 234. A form ame, he, seems to occur in ame-a-cham-bo, he divided. The list gives $h\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ -ya, they, but in No. 161 we find ni- $ch\bar{e}$, and in No. 167 $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $ch\bar{e}$. $H\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ -ya is also translated 'their', and is perhaps written for $h\bar{u}$ -ni- $ch\bar{e}$ - \bar{e} , with the genitive suffix \bar{e} . $H\bar{u}$ - $n\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{e}$ - $l\bar{a}$, of them, probably contains the suffix of the agent. A form hunilo, they, occurs in hunilo bolungthung koya-gnai, they began to make merry.

Demonstrative pronouns.—The following forms occur:— $hinn\bar{u}$, this; $h\bar{u}$ -ni, that; ommo, that. $Hinn\bar{u}$ probably means hi-ni, hi being the stem. We find also hi-inna, herefrom, and hi may also be added to personal pronouns in order to emphasise; thus, $n\bar{a}ng$ -hi, thy, in the specimen. The forms $h\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}i$, this, and $h\bar{o}$ - $n\bar{a}i$, that, are recorded from Arakan.

There are no Relative pronouns, relative participles being used instead. There is apparently only one instance in the specimen, kach awe-na nāng, my being is thine. The passage is perhaps corrupt, but we may infer that the suffix of the relative participle is na or nā. Compare the form hoi-nā, good. In one of the vocabularies published by Mr. Houghton we find ā-pēk-de kha-mi, given-having man. Here we have the suffix de which is probably identical with di in dan-di, the younger. Instead of chopo dan-di, the younger son, we ought perhaps to read dung-di cho-po, young-being son. In boi-boy sum-kan-khum, all spent when, the verb sum, without any suffix, is apparently used as a relative participle, kan-khum probably meaning 'at the time.' The future is perhaps used in the same way in kāi gna-ai ko-thue, for kāi ngā-ā ko-thue, I get-shall property, the share which I shall get.

Interrogative pronouns.—Āmi-mo, who? ā-ti-mo, what? ā-ti-a-mo, why? mā-yē-rē-mo, how many? Thus, nāng-ē ning-tho-o āmi-mo ung-hūi, thy back-at who walks? him-la

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a-ti, this what? $\bar{A}mi$ -mo seems to consist of the pronoun $\bar{a}mi$ or ame, he, and the interrogative particle mo. $\bar{A}ti$ -mo apparently also occurs in athimulam, because, i.e., probably $\bar{a}ti$ -mo-lam, what-for? why? $\bar{A}then$ -no-kon- $\bar{a}h$, for, seems to contain \bar{a} -ti-mo, what? and a word kon- \bar{a} , which apparently means 'reason-for'.

Indefinite pronouns.—Hā or hā-pa means 'anybody'; thus, hā pa-pya-yo or hā-pa pya-yo, anybody gave-not. The form ā-pāi-me, anybody, is recorded from Arakan. Boi-boy is translated 'all', and ati-lo seems to mean 'nothing'; thus, hu-ni-khi ati-lo, be (began) to-be-in want lit. him-to nothing. Ati-lo consists of the interrogative stem āti, what, and the negative lo. Compare, however, Burmese lo, to be wanting.

Verbs.—The pronominal prefixes which form so characteristic a feature in most languages of the Kuki-Chin group are apparently wanting in Khami. We find, however, some traces of a prefix a in the third person singular. Thus, a-thoom, he joined; \bar{a} -peh, he fell. The same prefix is also used before an imperative, in \bar{a} -p $\bar{a}u$, give. The absence of the prefixes may be owing to inadvertence. We find, however, a somewhat corresponding fact in Rāngkhōl, where the prefix of the third person singular is often used in all persons and numbers. In $k\bar{a}i$ $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$ ka $kh\bar{a}m$, I striking I receive, I am struck, we apparently have the pronominal prefix ka of the first person singular.

The root alone, without any suffix, is generally used to denote present and past time; thus, $k\bar{a}i$ $\bar{a}m$ -po $h\bar{u}$ -ni im-cho-o om, my father that house-small-in lives; ing lam tha, music dance (he) heard; $w\bar{a}i$ -ni $k\bar{a}i$ $k\bar{a}m$ -lo chwei, to-day I way-far have-walked. In $k\bar{a}i$ - $ch\bar{e}$, we are, the verb seems to be dropped. $K\bar{a}i$ -a, I was, is perhaps written for $k\bar{a}i$ -a. Latter gives au, to be.

A Present definite seems to be formed by prefixing baino; thus, kāi baino pā-khā, I am striking. I cannot analyse the form.

There is no instance of an *Imperfect*. Kāi yang-ni-o pā-khā, I was striking, literally means 'I past-time-in strike.'

Past tense.—The form yāng-ni pā-khā kāi (sie), I had struck, literally means 'past-time strike I. A suffix pa, bo, or bau, occurs in several forms of the past tense. Thus, thue-pa, said; a-cham-bo, he divided; kāi tāk-kū-bau, I went. The last mentioned words are, however, also translated 'I go.' A verbal suffix pa, signifying completion, is recorded from Arakan, and seems to be identical. A suffix ta occurs in tākān nai-ta, famine arose; hing-ta, came alive, etc.

The suffix of the Future seems to be a or \bar{a} ; thus, $k\bar{a}eh$ $\bar{a}ng$ -thāvā $k\bar{a}eh$ ampo-khi $ch\bar{a}iy\bar{a}$, I will-arise my father-to go-will. Another suffix mi, probably the Burmese mi, seems to occur in kai $t\bar{e}o$ -mi, I shall be. The form kai $p\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ $paiy\bar{a}$, I may strike, seems to be an ordinary future, and literally to mean 'I striking give-will'.

In $k\bar{a}i \ p\bar{a}-kh\bar{a} \ kinn\bar{u}$, I shall strike, we have a third suffix, $n\bar{u}$ or $ki-n\bar{u}$. Campbell gives neuh, and Latter $n\bar{a}k$ and $ga-n\bar{a}k$. This suffix is according to Latter also used in the present tense. Compare No. 179 in the list.

The root alone is used as an *Imperative*; thus, pah, give; kheu, put; lo, take. The future is used as an imperative of the first person plural; thus, bhō ban-chay-a, food letus eat. In No. 168 we find nāi-mi, be.

The root is also used as an *Infinitive* or *Verbal noun*; thus, ki-yo koi $k\bar{a}mo$ -nho, stomach to fill wished; im the kun-o, house enter would-not. A verbal noun is apparently also formed by prefixing $\bar{a}m$; thus, $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$, striking, from $p\bar{a}$ - $kh\bar{a}$, strike; e.g., $k\bar{a}i$ $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$ ka $kh\bar{a}m$, I striking I receive, I am struck. The suffix of the infinitive of

purpose is a or \bar{a} , identical with the suffix of the future; thus, pai-ya, to give, to spare; $kon-\bar{a}$, in order to make merry; $p\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}-wa$, to strike. In $n\bar{a}i-ba$, to be, the b is probably written for the euphonic w.

Participles.—The various forms of the Relative participle have been mentioned under Relative pronouns. Another suffix of this participle seems to be $v\bar{a}ng$ in $n\bar{a}i$ - $v\bar{a}ng$ -mi, being, lit. being-man. The suffix $w\bar{a}i$, in $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$ - $w\bar{a}i$, going, is probably the same as $v\bar{a}ng$. In $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$ -bau, gone, we have the same suffix bau which we found in the past tense.

There is no certain instance of an Adverbial participle. Pākhā, beating, may be one, and also thue-ah in hūni thue-ah thu-thu, he said to himself, lit. perhaps 'he saying said.' A Conjunctive participle is perhaps ung-pā-khā, having struck.

The idea of a *Passive voice* is effected periphrastically. The verb $kh\bar{a}m$, probably meaning 'to get,' 'to suffer,' seems to be generally used for that purpose. Thus, $k\bar{a}i$ $\bar{a}m$ - $kh\bar{a}$ ka $kh\bar{a}m$, I striking I suffer, I am struck. $P\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ $\bar{a}mt\bar{e}$ $kinn\bar{u}$, I shall be struck, seems to mean lit. 'strike-being-future.'

Compound verbs are apparently very freely used; thus, $la-y\bar{a}$, run-go, run; la-khao, take-put, bring. Sometimes the reduplication of the root seems to denote intensity; thus, koi-ma-koi, entreat. I have found the following prefixes: ang or ung, na or ne, and $p\bar{a}$; thus, $ang-th\bar{a}o$, to arise; ung-te to sit; $n\bar{e}-khra$, to pity; $p\bar{a}-kh\bar{a}$ to strike; $p\bar{a}-n\bar{a}h$, to kiss. $T\bar{a}$ in $t\bar{a}kk\bar{u}$, go, is probably also a prefix. Compare also an-yeo and am-yeo, went, where, however, an and am is perhaps the pronominal prefix. Adverbial modifications are effected by adding words such as bom-bom, highly, well; $n\bar{a}-nung$, much, etc.

The Negative particle is o. Thus, pa-o, gave not; a-o, disobeyed not. In $hoi-\bar{e}-n\bar{a}$, good-not-being, bad, \bar{e} is used instead of o. A negative lo, corresponding to the Lushei form, seems to occur in $h\bar{u}$ -ni-khi ati-lo, him-to nothing, he began to be in want. Lo is, however, perhaps identical with the Burmese lo, to be wanting. The meaning of the sentence would then be 'him-to everything was wanting.'

The Interrogative particle is mo. See Interrogative pronouns.

Order of words.—There is no consistent order of words in the specimen. It seems, however, that the rule is subject, direct object, indirect object, verb.

Dialectic differences.

It will be seen from the list of authorities that several Khami vocabularies have been published, and it is of interest to compare them. The comparison of nouns and verbs is, however, almost impossible, because we never know whether the translations given of the same word in different lists are really synonymous. I shall therefore only compare the numerals. To avoid repetition I have used the following abbreviations:—

- Ch.—The forms occurring in the specimen and the list received from Chittagong.
- PI.—Sir Arthur Phayre's Kami vocabulary, published by Hodgson.
- PII.—Sir Arthur Phayre's Kumi vocabulary, published by Hodgson.
- HI.—Maung Hla Paw Zan's Kami vocabulary, published by Houghton.
- HII.—Mg. Tha Bwin's Kami vocabulary, published by Houghton.
- Hu.—Major Hughes' Kamee vocabulary.
 - L.—Lieut. Latter's Khūmi vocabulary.
 - S.—Rev. L. Stilson's Kemī vocabulary.

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I have not considered the two vocabularies published by Sir Arthur Phayre in 1841. His Koladon Koomi mainly agrees with PII., and his Mee Koomi with S. The two vocabularies given by Captain Lewin in most particulars agree with PI.

Ch. is taken down in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and PII. in the hills on the upper part of the Koladyne River. Hu. and L. belong to the same district, while the rest, HI., HII., PI., and S. are from Akyab. These vocabularies can therefore be divided into two geographical groups, one northern comprising Ch., Hu., L., and PII.; and one southern comprising HI., HII., PI., and S. The following table shows the numerals in these lists:—

,		Ch.	Hu.	L.	PII.	· HI.	HII.	PI.	s.
One		ha-rē	ha-ree	nhāh	hā	han-tâ	han	hā	hān
Two		nū-rē	ahu-re	nü	nhū	ka-ni	nī	nī	nī
Three	•	thūng	tun-re	thūn	tūm	ka-tōn	thông	ka-tūn	thūng
Four		plū	, pa-lū-re	p'lü	pa-lū	ma-li	mlē	ma-lī	ma-lī
Five		pā	pan-re	pāng	pān	bun-ngā	ba-ngā	pāng-ngā	bo-ngā
Six		tē-rū	ta-ru-re	ť-rü	ta-rū	ta-ru	tu-ru	ta-ū (sic)	ta-grū
Seven		sē-rū	sa-ru-re	s'-rü	sa-rū	sri	sē-ri	sa-rī	s-rî
Eight		tāi-ya	ta-ya-re	tē-ya	ta-yā	te-ya	ka-yā	ka-yā	ka-yā
Nine		tā-kâ	tukkâ-re	t'-khau	ta-kau	te-kâ	ta-kâ	ta-ko	ta-kō
Ten		hoh	hâ-re	ho	hau	ka-su	khā-sok	ha-suh	khrā-s'a
Twenty		ā-pūm		a-pong-rē	a-pum-rē	pe-so	kū-suh	kū-suh	kūi-s'ą
Fifty		wei-pā		wi-pāng-rē	wi-pā-ri	khwe-bun-ngā	kūi-pang-ngā	kū-i-pāng-ngā	khrüī-bong
Hundred	١.	chūng-vāi		chūn-wai-rē	chūm, wā-ri	ta-yā		ta-rā	ta-grā

The two groups which were distinguished above from a geographical point of view, appear again here. They correspond to the divisions called Aphya Kūmi and Awa Kūmi by the Arakanese.

Mr. Stilson has given a short grammatical sketch of the dialect spoken on the Mee River, a branch of the Koladyne, some seventy miles above its mouth at Akyab. I take a few notes from this work, comparing it with the forms in Ch. and in the notes furnished by Lieutenant Latter.

Nouns.—Gender.—S. gives the male suffix $p\bar{a}$, and the female $n\bar{u}$, corresponding to po and $n\bar{u}$ in Ch., poh and $n\bar{u}$ in L. L. further mentions the male suffixes $ch\bar{\iota}au$, for human beings; p'-ting, for large animals; loh, for small animals; and $l\bar{u}hi$, for birds. Ch. has $p\bar{a}$ -t $\bar{u}i$ corresponding to p'ting, and lo, corresponding to loh. The suffix $l\bar{u}$ -hi probably occurs in \bar{a} - $l\bar{u}$, cock.

Number.—S. has the plural suffix $k\bar{\imath}$, HI. tak, L. $ch\bar{\imath}$. Compare the plural suffix in pronouns in Ch.

Case.—S. gives $n\bar{a}i$, $m\bar{a}$, and $l\bar{a}$ as the suffixes of the Nominative; compare Ch. lah. The genitive is, according to S., expressed by putting the governed before the governing noun, or by means of the suffix ung. Ch. has the same principle, e and o corresponding

to S. ung. The suffix \tilde{a} , corresponding to Ch. o may be added to the object. L. has no remarks on case.

Pronouns.—'I' is $k\bar{a}i$ both in S. and in L. 'Thou' is nong in S., and nan in L.; compare Ch. $n\bar{a}ng$. The pronominal plural suffix is $s\bar{\imath}$ in S., corresponding to $ch\bar{\imath}$ in Ch. L. has no instances. The interrogative pronouns in S. are $ap\bar{a}i$ -me, who? and ta-ai-me, what? L. does not mention them.

Verbs.—The suffixes $k\bar{a}$ and te are added to the verb, without modifying the sense, in S.; Hu gives de, dat, and ka. L. has no suffix. S. has no suffix of the past tense, but pa may be added in order to denote completion. L. give the suffix bau, corresponding to bau in Ch. The suffixes of the Future are $ma \cdot k\bar{a}$ and ti in S., makaing in HI., and $n\bar{a}k$ or $ga \cdot n\bar{a}k$ in L. Ch. has \bar{a} , $kinn\bar{u}$, and mi. The suffixes of the Imperative are vi, i, and le in S. No suffix is added in L. and Ch. In the negative imperative na is added in S., $n\bar{o}k$ in HI., and mok in L. There is no instance in Ch. The suffix of the Infinitive of purpose is $k\bar{a}$ in S., and \bar{a} in Ch. The negative particles are a in S., o in Hu. and Ch., auk, au, and amon in L. The latter also knows a negative prefix b. The interrogative particles are ba, me, and tang in S., mon or maun in L., and mo in Ch.

It will be seen that the differences between the dialects are not important, and that L. generally agrees with Ch. as against S. We are therefore justified in saying that the different vocabularies belong to the same language. But there are two groups of dialects, one spoken in the north, and one in the south.

The translation of the parable which follows has been printed as I received it. I have only hyphened out the words and suffixes, and corrected obvious mistakes. I have also given the List of Words without corrections. I have, however, tried to add to it correct forms in a second column. In preparing this I have taken the forms given by Latter and Campbell, the latter within parentheses. Campbell's list is full of misprints and my corrections are not always certain. In the words taken from Latter I have placed the final consonants which he says are silent between marks of parenthesis; thus, che(k), go. Instead of his apostrophe, ('), to denote the vowel sound between two consonants I have used a small above the line; thus, $k^a n \bar{\imath}$, sun. Instead of his u, I have given \bar{u} , and instead of his oo, I have given u.

[No. 38.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

KUKI-CHIN GROUP.

KHAMI.

(DISTRICT, CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

Khu-mi lhong-reh cho-po long-nhu-reh om. Cho-po dandi am-pho na-yeo Man one-of sons twowere. Son young father gna-ai ko-thue kāi-āh pah.' Huni ko-thue ame-a-cham-bo. thue-pa, 'Gnā-āi, kāi 'Father, my share-of goodsme-to give.' He goodshe-divided. No-ākra-khāmo dan-di cho-po wan-reh om-tan. Cho-po dan-di Not-many-days-after son younger together all-gathered. Son younger kam-lo-ah pre-than chāah. Hu-ni-oh nowyom sung-kra kothue. Boiboy far country went. There riotously wastedgoods. Allsum kankhum. hu-ni-oh tākān nai-ta. Hu-ni-khi ati-lo. Hu-ni spent after, there famine arose. Hewas-in-want. Hepre-banā khu-mi vanreh a-bhoom. Hu-ni hu-ni-oh ao an-yio tāi-chā-pay-a country-in man withjoined. Hehim swineto-feed pittām-la. Hu-ni ao-chā ki-yo koi kāmo-nho. $_{
m Har{a}}$ ра-руа-уо. sent-field. Hehusksbelly to-fill intended-wilfully. Anybody · gave-not. Hu-ni thue-āh thu-thu, ' Kāeh am-pho ko-lu-lo a-lāi-nāh toko Hehimself said, · My father's many servants breadnov-mano pai-ya, kāeh angla dee. Kāeh āng-thāw-ā kāeh enough to-spare, Iwith-hunger perish. I arise-will am-po-khi chāi-yā ām-pho-khi khui-ah, "Gnā-āi, kāeh ka-ni-ka-long father-to go-will father-to say-will, "Father. IGod-to gnarā om-lo, nang khio, kāeh nang cho-po-lon-nhu. Nang sin committed, thee to,I thy. son-not-worthy. Thou kai-o nang-hi alainah pan."' Hu-ni ang-thao, am-po-khi chah. Kam-loservant make." me Hearose, father-to went. Distance-farhu-ni bang ām-po hu-ni-oh nhu-u, ne-khra. Hu-ni la-vā. athis father him saw, had-compassion. Heran-went. ka-nao ā-peh, hu-ni-oh pā-nāh. hu-ni-oh Cho am-pho khio thue, 'Gnā-āi. his father neck fell, himkissed. Son tosaid, kaeh kani-ka-long gnara om-lo, nāng khio; kaeh nang cho-po-I God-to sin committed, theeI to; thy80%lon-nhu.' 'Hoi kani lakhao, huni-oh kheu; Am-po ālainah thue-pah, not-worthy. Father servant said. Best robe bring, him-on put; hu-ni-oh keu ku-chā-buth kheu hu-ni khao fā-nāi ā-pāu, bho ban-cha-ya, his hand ring puthis feet shoe foodgive, let-us-eat.

pa-lun-thung-o-kowa, athinno-konāh kaeh cho dāu, a-leh-hing-ta; hu-ni let-us-be-merry, formyson was-dead, again-alive-is; hetama-we. a-leh-ta.' Hu-ni-lo bo-lung-thung-ko-ya-gnai. again-is-found.' to-be-merry-began. lost-was, They

Waimo hu-ni-oh cho-po lan laom. Hu-ni im-o tom-ka chah Now his80n big field-in Hewas. house-to near came lam tha. Hu-ni ing ālāināh lhong-reh khau hu-ni ding. dancing music heard. Heservant one called he asked. 'Himla-ate?' Hu-ni hu-ni-oh thue, 'Nang ām-nāh am-yeo. " What-is-this-going-on?" Hehim-to 'Thy younger-brother said, came, nang am-pho rine pa, athi-mu-lam hu-ni hu-ni-oh ti-bu-bu hā.' Hu-ni father feast gave, because he him safe got.' Hea-ngey-tho-pa im-the-kun-o. Hu-ni-oh am-po nāmā theo. hu-ni-oh got-angry house-enter-would-not. Hisfather outcame, him koi-ma-koi. Cho-po lah am-po-na thue, 'Ya-ko-lu-bo nāng klan-po Son eldest (sic) father-to entreated. said, ' So-many-years thy never ana kaeh am-nai wan-reh ao, kon-ā maya-cho pa-0; nāng orderdisobeyed, my friends goat-young gavest-not; thy withto-amuse cho-po go-gro-ma wan-reh pa-vā, ni-ni-hi-ni-van po-wa pa son harlots withdevoured-living. him-for feastgavest nang.' Am-po cho-po-o thu, 'Nang kaeh kaihow wan reh, kaeh awe-na thou.' Father son-to said, ' Thou me with, ever I have-what kāi-hoi nang; kon-a, athi-mu-lam nang ām-nā dāu thine; · we should-make-merry, for thybrother was-dead a-leh-hing-ta, hu-ni tāmā-we a-leh-ta.' again-alive-is, he lost-was again-is-found.'

. 1 7 1 . e... es s å . .

STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES IN SOUTHERN CHIN DIALECTS.

Eng	lish.			Taungt	ha (V	V. B. T	ydd).		Chin	bōk (W	В. Т	ydd).		Yaw	vdwin	(A. Ro	es).	٠	Shö (Ch	itt=gon	g Hill	Tracts	s).
. One .			•	Pa-khat					Tumat					Tumat		•			Māt			•	_
. Two .	•	•		P ^s -nip					Nhi					Nhi	•				Ni				
. Three	•			P*-thūm					Thum					Tum					Thūm			•	
. Four .				Pa-li					Phi					Pyi					Lhi				
. Five .		•		Pa-nga	٠.				Mha					Mha					Ngha				
Six .				Pª-ru					Khrűk					Kroak					Sok-e				
. Seven				Pa-sari			•		Serr					Khri	,	•.			Shēy				
3. Eight	٠			Pa-rip			•		Shit	٠.				Khret					Shet			•	
. Nine .		•		Pa-kwa				•	Ko	٠	.•			Ko	• ,				Kâ				
. Ten .		•		Pª-rhā	•				Hsrār					Rhar					Hā				
. Twenty		•		Rui nīp					Um-ku					Ma-kōn					Kūl				
2. Fifty		• .		Rui ngā										Mha-gyi	p				Ngha g	p			
3. Hundred	•	,	•	Та-уā					Phya					Рrа					Krāt				
. I .				Куе	٠.				Che					Kamât		٠.			Kēi				
6. Of me	•				•				÷						٠.	·· ···			Kēi khe	o			
. Mine .	•									•			2			··			Kēi				
7. We .	•	•		Kye-bu					Kye-mi					Lhi					Kēi-mi				
3. Of us		•				····				•••									Kēi-mi	kheo			
Our .		•				••••			8							. .			Kūt-ka	(sic)			
). Thou				No					Nan					Hin					Nung (i.e.,	nang,	. and	ı
l. Of thee					•	••••										••••			Nung-k				
. Thine	•	•							78										Nung-k	neo			
. You .	•	•		Nin					Nan	•				Hin					Nung				
. Of you	•			•	•	••••								·	٠.				Nung-k	heo			
. Your																• - • •		•	Nung				

Shō	(Ho	ughto	1).			Shö (l	ryer).		Khami (Chittag	ong H	ill Tra	icts).	Khami (Latter and C	ampbell).	English.
Hâ .				•	Hot				Ārey .				Hā-rē		1. One.
Nhi .	•		3		Nhi				Nűr .				Nü-rē		2. Two.
ľhün .					Thum				Thung .				Thûn-rē		3. Three.
Mlhi .	•				Mli				Plā .				Pa-lü		4. Four.
Ngho .					Ngho				Pā .				Pāng		5. Five.
Sok .	69				Sop	·			Tē-rū .				T ^a rü		6. Six.
Si .					She	٠,			Sē-rū .				S*-rü		7. Seven.
Se .	el				Shap				Tāi-ya .				Tē-ya	٠,,.	8. Eight.
ζο .					Go				Tā-kâ .	٠			Ta-kâ		9. Nine.
Ngha or h	a				Ngha or	ha			Hoh .				Но		10. Ten.
ъ.					Goi				Ā-pām .	•			A-pong-rē .		11. Twenty.
Iauk-kyit	,				Ngho gip	· .		٠	Wei-pā .				Wi-pang-re		12. Fifty.
Phyā-hâ					Pia-hot				Chung-vāi				Chūm-wai-rē .		13. Hundred.
Kyē .					Kie				Kāi .			٠.	Kāi		14. I.
Kyē <i>or</i> ka					Kie or k	a			Kāi-la .						15. Of me.
Kyē-gu .					Kie-ku				Kāi-ma .						16. Mine.
Kyē-me .		•			Kie-me				Kāi-chē .				Kāi-chē		17. We.
									Kāi-chē-ilāo				46		18. Of us.
	· 						'		Kāi-chē-ey				Kāi-chē-ē .		19. Our.
laung .					Naun				Dung-di .				Nāng		20. Thou.
laung .					Naun or	ną			Dung-di lão				······		21. Of thee.
aung-gu					Naun-ku				Dung-di chē						22. Thine.
aung-me					Naun-me				Dung-di				Nāng-chē .		23. You.
		. 							Dung-di ilāo		• .		*****		24. Of you.
	•••								Dung-di nung	-khi					25. Your.

En	glish.			Taun	gtha (W. B. T	ydd).		Chinbò	k (W. B.	Tydd).		Yawdwin (A.	Ross).	Shö (Ch	ittagon	g Hill	Trac	ts).
26. He .				A-ko					A-ni .		•		Amhut		Choi-kh	rong			
27. Of him		•													Ai-kheo				
28. His .								1							Ai-kheo				
29. They .	٠			A-ko bt	ı .				A-ni-mi .				Amhut		Ai-kūl				
30. Of them						····							 .		Ai-kūl-i	cheo			
31. Their					•	····									Ai-ā-pēl	τ.			
32. Hand				Kut					Kut .				Kūt		Kūt				
33. Foot															Khâ				
34. Nose .		٠.		Rhâ	•				Ngha .				Hā		Naktē				
35. Eye .				Mi.			٠.		Mekawi				Myier		Mik				
36. Mouth				Ka					Um-rong				Ma-raung .		Kâ.			v.	
37. Tooth	٠			На			•		На				На		Hâ.	8.5.			
38. Ear .			٠.	Na .					Ngha-phu	ın .			Hak-wai .		Nākkū				
39. Hair .			٠.	Sam		÷	10		Luk-swi				Lā		Tsom				
40. Head	•			Lu .	٠		•		Lup-pun				Kha-luk-kwai .		Lūki				
41. Tongue	•		٠.	Le .					Um-li .				Ku-mlai		Lei			÷	
42. Belly	•			Am		•	·		Pwe .	•			Kűp-pwe .		Hun				
43. Back	•	•				•									Ngũng				
44. Iron .	•	•	;	Shi			٠		Amser .	•	٠.		Mashi		Thi				
45. Gold .	•	•	•	Shwe		•			Swi .				Rhwi		Hā		·		
6. Silver	• .	•	٠	Rhun					Ngwi .	•			Ngwi	٠.	Hēn				7
7. Father	•	•	•	Pa		٠	٠		Pa .	٠			Ра-о		På				
48. Mother		٠	•	Ι.	•		•		Ngu .	•			Nu-waing .		Nũ	•		٠	
9. Brother	٠			Na-ba (young	(eld ger).	ler),	na-	pa	Kap-phwe (younger)	(elder), ka-	na	Ka-pē (elder), (younger).	, ka-nā	Tā .				
0. Sister		٠	٠	Thit			*		Кар-ре (е	lde r)			Ka-pē-nu (elder) (younger).	; paik- <u>th</u> a	Bē	•			ŕ
l. Man .	•.	•	•	Khan	٠	٠			Chan .		٠		Pa-mi		Khrong	•			
2. Woman	•			Nura		•			Ngu-mi .				No-mi		Mata				۶.

Shö (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
Ayā	Aya or ya	Hū-nē	Hū or nī	26. He.
		Hū-nē ilāo		27. Of him.
		Hū-nē-ey	Hū-ni-o	28. His.
Na-hyâ, yā-ti or ayā-hyâ .	Ayatti or yati	Hū-nē-kē-ya	Hű-ni-chě	29. They.
		Hū-nē-kē-lā		30. Of them.
,		Hū-nē-kē-ya	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	31. Their.
Kut	Ma-kuth	Kiuk	A-kū	32. Hand.
Khon or kho	Ma-kho	Khē-a	A-kō(k)	33. Foot.
Nhut-tō	,	Natrā	*****	34. Nose.
1-mi	Mik	Mēi	A-mī(k)	35. Eye.
Vâ-kho	Ma-hau-kho	Lēbāo	La-baung	36. Mouth.
L-ho	Ma-ho	Но	Hâ	37. Tooth.
-nhō	Ma-nho	Kannt	Kānnau . · . · .	38. Ear.
A-'sân	Shom	Tsām	Chām	39. Hair.
ı-lü	Ma-lu	Lā	A-lü	40. Head.
ımlē-bâ	Ma-le-bong	Pā-lāi		41. Tongue.
ük		Та-уа	(Ku-yow)	42. Belly.
lhing	Mą-lhing	Ning-thūn	Ning-thon	43. Back.
l'thi	Nthi or thi	Tammū	Ta-mau	44. Iron.
[a	На	Műkű		45. Gold.
[ēn	Heam	Tānkā		46. Silver.
-рб	А-ро	Nā-āi · · ·	Ngª-ā-ī	47. Father.
nü	Д-nü	Něh	Nga-au-i	48. Mother.
-tā (elder), a-nau (young- er).	A-ta (elder), A-nau (young- er).	Yā		49. Brother.
-nü-bi	A-si	Tai-cha	(Toi-cho)	50. Sister.
-khlaung	Khlaung	Nūm-chū	Noung-bū-chiāū	51. Man.
a-tho	Nha-to	Nāmpūi	Noung-bū-cha (or nong- pui).	52. Woman.

	Eng	glish.			Taun	gtha (W. B. T	'ydd).	Chinbo	5k (W. I	3. Tydd)		Yawdwin	(A. Ro	ss) .		Shö (Chit	tagon	g Hill	Trac	ts)
5 3.	Wife	•	•		σ.				Chu				Kūk-kharu				Mata				
54.	Child		•,		A-tē			•	Anghâ-za				A-mo- <u>th</u> a				Cha				
5 5.	Son .	•			Tha (B	urme	se)	•	Ka-zat-pa	-mi .	•		Ka-tha .				Pata cha				
56.	Daughter				Tha-mi	(Bur	mese)		Ka-zat-ng	u-mi			No-mi sa				Mata cha				
57.	Slave				Shin								Akkrang				Mā				
58.	Cultivator				Khu-bi-	khan			Ukrangnil	k.			Raiksi .				Lāi-tan-di				
59.	Shepherd	•															Mā-keong	-di			
60.	God .								Ku .				Khu .				Nānākkā				
61.	Devil						···••		Umcha .				Khârum .				Bhūt				
62.	Sun .												Khâ-ni .				Kha-ni				
63.	Moon				Kha				Cha .				Khā .				Khra .				
64.	Star .				A-chi				Ēk'serr .				I-shi .				Āshē				
35.	Fire .		٠		A-rhim				Shran it s	'ni .			Rhaingsi				Mhēi				
66.	Water				Tui				Tui .				Tui .				Tũi				
67.	House				Īm				Īm .				Îm, pyu, rein				Im .		•	•	
38.	Horse				Se .				Se .				Lhē .				Shē .		•	•	
59.	Cow .	٠.			Som-sat				Pan-nu .			i	Puk-nu .							•	
70.	Dog .				U-ur				Uwi .	·	•	•	Wi		•		Shēil .		•		
71.	Cat .				Mīn				Min .	•	•	•			•	- 1	Ŭi			•	
72.	Cock .				At-rhwi				Ai-lhur .	•	•	•	Myin .		•		Min .		•	٠	
	Duck						3.4.3	•	Ai-mur .			•	Ī-rhwī .		•		Ālipha .		•	•	
	Ass .						••••			•••			•••	•••			Bompai .			٠	
٠	Camel						••••			•••••			····			1	Bēgān .			•	
	Bird .				Wa	•	••••			•••••				••			Űt .				
	Go .	•				•	•	•	Kha .	•	•		Khā .				На .			٠	
	Eat .	•	•	1	Thīp-yap	,	•	•	Seto -		•	•	Thit .	•	•		Chēt-āl .			•	
9. 8		•	•		Thū	•	•	•	Ik (to eat)	•	٠	•	Ka-e, ē-nak	•	•		A-ēi .		•		
· ,	JIU .	•	•		Nwân	•	•	•	Ngo .	٠			Ka-ngauk-khai				Om .				

S	hö (Houghton)•		Shō (Fryer)).		Khami (Chittagong	Hill	Tracts).	Khami (Latter	and Car	mpbell).		English.
Pha-yā		• ,			Paya		-	Âyā	10.0					53.	Wife.
Sa-mi					So or sha-mi .			Dung-di .			Doung-di			54.	Child.
So		٠			·			Nűm-chű chű .	T (2)		Chi-po .			55.	Son.
Sō-nü					A-so			Nūm-pūi chū .			Chī-nü .			56.	Daughter.
Myā								Mi-chão			(Mu-shong)	•		57.	Slave.
					•••••			Lē-thanā .			(Lha-wo)			58.	Cultivator.
					•••••			Mē-ey-thanā .						59.	Shepherd.
Lhī					******			Tüm-mue .			Ka-ni-ya-lōng			60.	God.
								Shey-chi .			(Na) .	•		61.	Devil.
Kho-ni			٠		Kạ-nhi			Kinni			Ka-ni .			62.	Sun.
Khlō	•	•			Khlo			Loh			Lau .			63.	Moon.
Ā-'sī					Ā-she			Karsi		. :	Ka-tshī .			64.	Star.
Ме					Men			Māi			Māi .			65.	Fire.
Tui					Tui	•		Tāi			Tāi .			66.	Water.
In .	٠				Iạm	•		Im			Üm .			67.	House.
Si or she	е			٠.	Hē			Kang-ngā .			Kaung-ngau			68	. Horse.
Så					Sho			Shi-rā			Chī-nü .			69	. Cow.
Ui					υi			Ūi			Ūi .			70	. Dog.
Min-zān	ı	•			Min or mim-zam			Min-yāng .			Mi-yaung			. 71	. Cat.
A-lhūi	:	•			Ā-lhui			Ā-lū	0		Āa-lū-hi			. 72	. Cock.
Bē		٠						Rām-pā.						73	. Duck.
								Kang-ngā .						74	. Ass.
		•••••						*** -*	•					75	. Camel.
Phayō		• 1			Payo			Ta-wa			Ta-wō .			. 76	. Bird.
Sit-we		•			Sit-e			Takko			Che(k) .			. 77	. Go.
Ē-we					Ē-e	•		Kēu .			(Cho) .			. 78	Eat.
Kho-we					On-e			Tē .				••••		79	. Sit.

1	English	h.		Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shō (Chittagong Hill Tracts)
80. Come				Kong-khi	. Lao-и	Lâ-pyi	Kāi
31. Beat .				Vup	. Ma-vi-i		Mal
32. Stand			11.	Thâ	. Un-di-wi	Dilao-ki	Yå
33. Die .			100	A-shi	. Suksni	Shē-khai	Dū
34. Give .							Pēk
35. Run .				Thwon	. Tâng	Taungsi	Chan
86. Up .					·		Ālūng
87. Near .				A-nitha	Ayok	Ungsit	Āo-cha
88. Down							Nēm-ja
9. Far .				A-rhur	Chōk	Aksa	Ā-lam-lha
0. Before				Lamma	Ма	Pâ-hei-pa	Āyung
1. Behind				Hu	Ngu-ya	Ka-mhwet-ka	Nüngung
2. Who .					·		Nungwong
3. What				·			Youm
4. Why .							I-kē-wom
5. And .							
But .				*****			Kei-lā-nung
. If .				*** ***			Ābātā-ko-chey
Yes .				******			Nung-chē-ti-chey
No .							Ae
). Alas	·						Yā
. A father							σ
2. Of a fath	er						På ngat
. To a fath	er						På ngat khēo
. From a fa						1	På ngat cheng-å
. Two father					******	1	På ngat cheng-ā
. Fathers					******	F	Pâ pāi-ni
	•	•		•••••		P	På nung

Shö (Ho	ughton)		Sh	ö (Fryer).		Khami (Chittagong Hill	Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campoell).	English.
Lō-we .			Lo-e .			Yа		You(k)	. 80. Come.
Deng-e .			A-deng-e			Phākā		(Pukkow)	. 81. Beat.
Dün-e .						Ung-da		(Un-doh)	. 82. Stand.
Dü-we .			Dü-e .			Dēik		Do(k) or dawi .	. 83. Die.
Pek-e .		٠,	Pek-e .			Pāi		Pē	. 84. Give.
Sân-e .		٠	Son-e .			Um-pring .			85. Run.
Bü .	٠			****		Itling		(Hū-ling-bang) .	. 86. Up.
Sen .			A-seng-u	•		Kēssā		Tēō or (kung-sha) .	. 87. Near.
	·					Tlai-bāngā .			88. Down.
Lhō .	•		Lho .			Pha-lo		(Kum-lo-wa)	. 89. Far.
Mhân-gân, ay:	ang-gy	yī-gyī	Mhon-gon	٠		Mo-bāngā .		Моп-ō	90. Before.
Nhüklân	•					Nin-thün-bängā		Ning-thon	. 91. Behind.
Ani .			Ani .			Āmi-mo		(Mi-mo)	. 92. Who.
Baung .			Baung or p	i.		Āti-mo		(A-tī-mo)	. 93. What.
Pa-kha-tinü Nü	•	•				Ātia-mo			94. Why.
Na-khan-bā-s	ina_hâ	•		,				(Wai)	. 95. And.
Nă (suffix)	ша-па	•	A-na, di-na	(outimes)		Hū-nāi dung khūa Hū-nāi-bū-lo		(Nu-hai)	96. But.
Sī-yü or sī-bā			Ö-ö or shi-l			Nēi		(37.1.)	97. If.
Si-nü .			Nshi nu .			Na-o		(Nain)	98. Yes.
					•	Ah	•		99. No.
∆-рŏ .			Д-ро .			Ngā-āi leong-rē		(Ai ha-rē)	100. Alas.
А-ръ .			. Д-ро .			Ngā-āi leong-rē ilāo			. 101. A father.
А-рō-wā .			, A-po-ā .			Ngā-āi khe-o			102. Of a father. 103. To a father.
А-ро-дй.			. A-po agu			, , , , , ,			104. From a father.
A-pō pa-nhi			. A-po pun-	nhi .		Āmpū leong-nūr		Ng ^a -āi laung-nü	104. From a father.
A-pō hyâ			. A-po hio			Ām-pū nā .		V	. 106. Fathers.
						100 mm - 100		-8 (or an ampo)	. i. Fathers.

107. Of fathers 108. To fathers 109. From fathers 110. A daughter 111. Of a daughter				På nung
109. From fathers 110. A daughter 111. Of a daughter				På nung cheng-ā
110. A daughter				li de la companya de
111. Of a daughter	.		•••••	Pâ nung tha
				Chūnnū ngat
110 -				Chūnnū ngat tha
112. To a daughter .				Chūnnū chengā
113. From a daughter				Chūnnũ ngat tha
114. Two daughters .				Chūnnū pāi-mi (sic)
115. Daughters				Chūnnū nūng
116. Of daughters				Chūnnū-ti kheo .
117. To daughters				
118. From daughters				Chūnnū-ti tha
119. A good man .				Khrong pai ngat
120. Of a good man .				Khrong pai kheo
121. To a good man		•••••	•••••	Khrong pai cheng-ā
122. From a good man .			·····	Khrong pai tha
123. Two good men				Khrong pai pâ-chok-ni .
124. Good men		·····		Khrong pai nung
125. Of good men	·	••• •••	· ······	Khrong pai nung-cha kheo
126. To good men		••••		Khrong pai nung chengā .
127. From good men .				Khrong pai nung tha .
128. A good woman	Nura a-shin	Ngu-mi nīk	Lami tumat kaum shi	Mata ngat pai
129. A bad boy	Khan shippa (a bad man).	Chan ak-nit (a bad man) .	Krang shi tumat (a bad man).	Tsā-mi-cha pai-ā
130. Good women				Mata pai nung
131. A bad girl		•••••	Ambean (bad)	Matacha pai-ā
132. Good	Asbin	Nik	Abean	Pai
133. Better	Tha g*-shin	Akvai-nīk	Ada abean	Pai tēi

Shö (Houghton).		Shō (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
A-pō hyâ		A-po hio	Am-pū nāi-nā lē-o		107. Of fathers.
A-pō hyâ-wā		A-po hio-ā	Ām-pū nā		108. To fathers.
A-pō hyâ-gü		A-po hio agu	Ām-pū nai-nā khē-o	******	109. From fathers.
Sō-nü		·	Kinnū leong-rē		110. A daughter.
So-nü			Kinnū leong-rē lē-o		111. Of a daughter.
Sō-nü-wā			Kinnū leong-rē		112. To a daughter.
Sō-nü-gü			Kinnū leong-rē khē-o .		113. From a daughter.
Sō-nü pa-nhi .		·····	Kinnū leong-nū-rē	Chī-nü laung-nü	114. Two daughters.
Sō-nũ hyâ			Kinnū nā		115. Daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ			Kinnū nai-nā lē-o	· ••••	116. Of daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ-wā .			Kinnū nai-nā		117. To daughters.
Sō-nü hyâ-gü .			Kinnū nai-nā khē-o .	••••	118. From daughters.
-khlaung bhoi .		Khlaung aphoi	Khaimi hoy-nā leong-rē .	(Khu-mi họi)	119. A good man.
-khlaung bhoi .			Khaimi hoy-nā lēo	·	120. Of a good man.
A-khlaung bhoi-yā .		******	Khaimi hoy-nā leong-rē .		121. To a good man.
-khlaung bhoi-gü .			Khaimi hoy-nā khē-o .		122. From a good man.
-khlaung bhoi pa-nhi			Khai-mi hoy-nā leong-nū .	(Long-nu-re hoi)	123. Two good men.
-khlaung bhoi hyâ			Khaimi baiba tlong-hoy kē	(Khu-mi hoi)	124. Good men.
-khlaung bhoi hyâ		******	Khaimi koy-nā lēo		125. Of good men.
A-khlaung bhoi hyâ-wā	•		Khaimi hoy-nā ya		126. To good men.
A-khlaung bhoi hyâ-gü			Khaimi hoy-nā khē-o		127. From good men.
Natho bhoi		Nhato aphoi	Num-pui hoy-na leong-rē .	(Nong-pui hoi)	128. A good woman.
Sami po 'si		·	Dung-di leong-rē hoy-ē-na leong-rē.		129. A bad boy.
Natho bhoi hyâ	٠.	Page	Nūm-pūi hoy-nā nai .	(Nong-pui hoi)	130. Good women.
lâ-nü 'si		******	Num-pui chu hoy-ē-nā leong-rē.		131. A bad girl.
A-bhoi		A-phoi or abhoi	Hoy-nā	A-haui	132. Good.
hoi-hēk	٠.	San aphoi	Ноу	(Noi-hoi)	133. Better,

	En	glish.			Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbōk (W. B. Tydd)).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
134.	Best				A-shin-rhe	Ak-nīk-pyi		Ada abean	A-thaka pai-tēi
135.	High				A-kan	Āk-thun		Uksu	Ā-ling
136.	Higher					*****		·	Ā-ling tha ā-ling
137.	Highest							•••••	Ai-tha ā-ling
138.	A horse								Shē ngat
139.	A mare	•							Shē-nū ngat
140.	Horses								Shē nūng
141.	Mares								Shē-nữ nững
42.	A bull				Som sat	Se-pat		Khan-do	Shēl-ei ngat
43.	A cow				Som nu	Pan-nu		Puk-nu	Shēl-nū ngat
44.	Bulls								Shēl nūng
45.	Cows								Shēl-nū nūng
46.	A dog					•••••			Ūingat
47.	A bitch	٠							Ūi-nū ngat
48.	Dogs								Ŭinung
4 9.	Bitches						Ser.		Ūi-nū nūng
50.	A he goat				Mē (a goat)	Mè (a goat)		Mai (a goat)	Mā-hē ngat
51.	A female	goat		\cdot					Mā-nū ngat
52.	Goats								Mā-hē nūng
53.	A male d	eer							Sakhi-hēo ngat
54.	A female	deer							Sakhi-nū ngat
55.	Deer				Thamin	Kyiran			Sakhi-hēo nūng
56.	I am		•						Khēke ka tan-ēi
57.	Thou art				`				Nungni ni-mai
158.	He is				***			******	Ayā mai
59.	We are								Khē-ni mai
60.	You are								Bai ti o (sic)
	KC. G	-				<u> </u>			

Shö (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts). Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
A-bhoi-hek <i>or</i> a-bhoi-' sün .	Aphoi-hek	Hoy-tep (Hoi-na-hoi)	134. Best.
Lhüng	A-lhüng	Ā chāng (A-shiang)	135. High.
hüng-hēk	San ą-lhüng	Hu-ni tlang-wa ā-chāngkē. (Hu tlong a-shiang).	136. Higher.
Lhüng-hēk	A-lhüng-hek	A-chāng-tēp (Hū ashiang-bē)	137. Highest.
Si-nsa		Keong-o hā-rē Kounggnau pa-ting	138. A horse.
Si-nü	Не-пй	Keong-o-nū hā-rē . Kounggnau-nü	139. A mare.
Si-nsa hyâ		Keong-o nā (Kong-o bang)	140. Horses.
Si-nü hyâ		Keong-o-nữ nã	141. Mares.
Sâ-thi	Sho-thi	Shira pātāi Chie pa-ting	142. A bull.
Sâ-nü	Sho-nü	Shira-nŭ hā-rē Chie-nü ,	143. A cow.
Sâ-thi hyâ		Shira pātāi nā (Nū bang)	144. Bulls.
Sâ-nü hyâ		Shira-nű nā (Nű bang)	145. Cows.
Ui-hān	Ui-han	- Üi-lo hā	146. A dog.
Ui-nü	Ui-nü	Ŭi-nū hā Ūi-nū	147. A bitch.
Ui-hān hyâ		Ūi-lo nā	148. Dogs
Ui-nü hyâ		บิ๋เ-กน์ กลั	149. Bitches.
A-mi-nsa		Mē-hē pātāi hā-rē (Me-e)	150. A he goat.
A-mi-nü		Mē-nū hā-rē (Me-e nū)	151. A female goat.
A-mi hyâ		Mē-hē pātāi nā (Me-e bang)	152. Goats.
Satgyī-nsa		Chikhi pātāi hā-rē (Ta-kī)	153. A male deer.
'Satgyī-nü		Chikhi-nū hā-rē (Ta-ki nū)	154. A female deer.
'Satgyī hyâ		Chikhi nā (Ta-kī bang)	155. Deer.
Kyē ka tân-ē-yü .	Kie ką-moi-u	Kāi tē Kai au (or kai om)	156. I am.
Naung na moi-yü	Naun nạ-moi-u	Nung dung-di tē (Nang om)	157. Thou art.
Ayā moi-yü	Aya na-moi-u	Hūnni teo (Hū om)	158. He is.
Kyē-me ma moi-yü	Kie-me ma moi-u	Kāi-chē (Kai-che om)	159. We are.
Naung-me ma moi-yü	Naun-me ma-moi-u .	Nung-kē dung-di tē (Nang-che om)	160. You are.

		1	1	
English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
161. They are				A-khal mai
162. I was				Kē ka mai
163. Thou wast				Nung-ni ni mai
164. He was		3		Enghāt mai
165. We were				Kēi-ni khini mai
166. You were				Nung nya mai
167. They were				A-khal ä mai
168. Be				Ta nei (i.e. thân-ē)
169. To be		·	.	Ta nei na (i.e. thân-ē-nā) .
170. Being				Ta nei (i.e. thân-ē)
171. Having been	20*****		•••••	Ta nei nāhā (i.e. thânē-nā- hā).
172. I may be	·			Khe ke tanë-ai
173. I shall be				Khe ke ta
174. I should be				
175. Beat			, ,	Mal
176. To beat	.			Mal-ēi-shâ
177. Beating		200 January 152		Mal-nā
178. Having beaten				Mal-dek-shâ
179. I beat		. I		Khe ke mal-ai-shâ
180. Thou beatest	ā a	,		Nung ni mal
181. He beats		·		Ai-la mal-shâ
182. We beat		p p	. •••••	Kēi-ni mal
183. You beat				Nungni mal
184. They beat	·	·		A-kalā (sic) mal
185. I beat (Past Tense) .				
186. Thou beatest (Past Tense).		· • • • · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	*****	,
187. He beat (Past Tense).	· · · · · · · ·		· ·····	
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Shō (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
Na-hyâ moi-yü	Ayati ma-moi-u	Ni-chē tē	(Hū-ni-che om)	161. They are.
Kyē ka moi-ni-ü	Kie ka moi-ni-u	Kāi a	<u></u>	162. I was.
Naung na moi-ni-ü	Naun na moi-ni-u	Dung-di chi-om	·····	163. Thou wast,
Ayā moi-ni-ii	Aya na moi-ni-u	Hūnni om	(Hū-nai kache-boh)	164. He was.
Kyē-me ma moi-ni-ü .	Kye-me ma moi-ni-u .	Kāi-chē om	(Kai-che kache-boh)	165. We were.
Naung-me ma moi-ni-ü .	Naun-me ma moi-ni-u .	Dung-di nung-kë om .	(Nang-che kache-boh) .	166. You were.
Na-hyâ moi-ni-ü	Yati hio na moi-ni-u .	Hū-ni-chē om	(Hūni-che kache-boh) .	167. They were.
Tân-e	Moi-e	Nāi-mi		168. Be.
	Moi-ei	Nāi-ba	(Om)	169. To be.
 .	Moi agu	Nāi-vāng-mi	·	170. Being.
			,	171. Having been.
, 		Kāi tē-o-mi	<u>-</u> -	172. I may be.
Kyē ka moi-aih	Kye ka moi-ei	Kāi tē-o-mi		173. I shall be.
				174. I should be.
Deng-e	Deng-e	Pākhā	(Pakkau)	175. Beat.
, 1, 1, 1 1	Deng-ei	Pākhā-wā	(Pakkau-che)	176. To beat.
Deng-tü or deng-nā	Deng gu	Pākhā	(Pakkau boh)	177. Beating.
Deng-pana		Ung-pākhā	(Pakkau bon)	178. Having beaten.
Kyē ka deng-ü	Kye ka deng-u	Kāi pākhā kinnū	· · · ·	179. I beat.
Naung na deng-ü	Naun na deng-u	Dung-di pākhā		180. Thou beatest.
Ayā deng-ü	Aya na deng-u	Hūnni pākhā		181. He beats.
Kyē-me ma deng-ü	Kyē-me ma deng-u	Kāi-chē pākhā		182. We beat.
Naung-me ma deng-ü	Naun-me ma deng-u .	Dung-di pākhā		183. You beat.
Na-hyâ deng-ü	Ayati ma deng-u	Ni-chē pākhā		184. They beat.
Kyë ka deng-ni-ii	Kye ka deng-ni-u			185. I beat (Past Tense).
Naung na deng-ni-ü	Naun na deng-ni-u			186. Thou beatest (Pas Tense).
Ayā deng-ni-ü	Aya na deng ni-u	· · ·		187. He beat (Past Tense).

English.		Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
88. We beat (Past T	ense).				,
89. You beat (Past	Tense)	:		·	
90. They beat (Past	Tense)				
91. I am beating					Khe ke mal
92. I was beating				'	Khe ke mal hiā-a .
93. I had beaten		100 /40			Khe ke mal
94. I may beat					Khe ke mal-nung .
95. I shall beat		•••		Ka lâk-kē (I shall come) .	Khe ke mal-āi
96. Thou wilt beat			·	·····	
97. He will beat		A-ko kōn-ni-ri (he will come).	A-ni lâk-khi (he will come)		
98. We shall beat					
99. You will beat		•••••			•••••
00. They will beat					
01. I should beat .					Khe ke būp-ai-shâ
02. I am beaten .		*****	····		Khe mal khe ke më (sic)
03. I was beaten .		******			Yā khē mal khē mē (sic)
04. I shall be beaten					Khel mal kham-ei-shâ
05. I go .					Khe ke chet-āi .
06. Thou goest	-			·····	Nung chet-cha .
07. He goes		••• :••			Ai chet-cha
08. We go				······	•••
09. You go					• •••••
10. They go		******			
ll. I went					Khe ke chet-cha .
12. Thou wentest .		******			Nung āiyung ngē chet
13. He went .		*****			Ai chet
14. We went		*****			*****

Shö (Houghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	Eagiish.
Kyē-me ma deng-ni-ü	Kie-me ma deng-ni-u .			188. We beat (Past Tense).
Naung-me ma deng-ni-ü .	Naun-me ma deng-ni-u .			189. You heat (Past Tense).
Na-hyâ deng-ni-ü	Yati hio na deng-ni-u .			190. They beat (Past Tense).
Kyē deng-nā ka ân-ü .	 .	Kāi baimo		191. I am beating.
		Kai yang-ni-o pākhā .		192. I was beating.
Kyē ka deng-pheng-ni-ü .		Yāng-ni pā-khā kāi		193. I had beaten.
*****	·	Kai pā-khā pai-yā	(Kāi pakkau-pi-yau)	194. I may beat.
Kyē ka deng-aiḥ	Kie ką deng-ei	Kāi pā-khā kinnū	(Kāi pakkau neuh) .	195. I shall beat.
Naung na deng-aih	Naun na deng-ei			196. Thou wilt beat.
Ayā deng-aiḥ	Aya na deng-ei			197. He will beat.
Kyē-me ma deng-aiḥ .	Kye-me ma deng-ei			198. We shall beat.
Naung-me ma deng-aih .	Naun-me mạ deng-ei .	*****		199. You will beat.
Na-hyâ deng-aiḥ	Yati hio na deng-ei	***	······	200. They will beat.
······	•••	Kāi pā-khā-wā		201. I should beat.
A-deng ka khân-ü	Kie deng ka-sun-ey-u .	Kāi ām-khā ka khām	(Kai pakkau)	202. I am beaten.
Δ-deng ka khân-nî-ü .		Ām-khā bom-bom kāi khām	(Kai pakkau)	203. I was beaten.
A-deng ka khân-aiḥ	*****	Pā-khā ām-tē kinnū	*****	204. I shall be beaten.
Kyē ka sit-ū	Kie ką sit-yu	Kāi tākkū bau	Kai che(k)	205. I go.
Naung na sit-ü	Naun na sit-yu	Dung-di tākkū	Nān che(k)	206. Thou goest.
Ayā sīt-ü	Aya na sit-yu	Ni tākkū bau	Ni che(k)	207. He goes.
Kyé-me ma sit-ü	Kye-me ma sit-yu	····		208. We go.
Naung-me ma sit-ü	Naun-me ma sit-yu	·······		209. You go.
Na-hyâ sit-ü	Yati hio na sit-yu	•••••	 :	210. They go.
Kyē ka sit-ni-ü	Kye ka sit-ni-u	Kāi tākkū bau	Kai che(k) bau(k)	211. I went.
Naung na sit-ni-ü	Naun na sit-ni-u	Dung-di tākkū bau	Năn che(k) bau(k)	212. Thou wentest.
Ayā sit-ni-ü	Aya na sit-ni-u	Ni bai bau	Ni che(k) bau(k)	213. He went.
Kyē-me ma sit-ni-ü	Kie-me ma sit-ni-u			214. We went.

_	English.	Taungtha (W. B. Tydd).	Chinbök (W. B. Tydd),	Yorkin (A. Pan)	Shir (Mill)
_			Calaba (W. In Tyan).	Yawdwin (A. Ross).	Shö (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
215.	You went				•••••
216.	They went				
217.	Go		Seto	i	Che
218.	Going		· •	<u></u>	Chetű lachē
219.	Gone	······	· ·		Chetcha
220.	What is your name? .	Nun a-mein ta-burr-yë ?	Ngan min anuyan?	Nanut na-nin ū yan ? .	Nung mi ya?.
221.	How old is this horse?	He myin-sa myit t' 5m ?	She num-se kun a-i-iksu lauk syan.	Akum i-ku-âp si-yan ? 🗓 .	Ni chey eya achak ma dākā ?
222.	How far is it from here to Kashmir?	(Kashmir) mittâ a-rhu-yē?	(Kashmir) i-rut chok syan?	Ī swē hang sak si-yan ? .	Ni thak Kashmir prē ya
223.	How many sons are there in your father's	. .	<u></u> -	<u></u>	Pâ im-ā cha pachung
224.	house? I have walked a long way to-day.	·····	#:.	· · <u>i</u> ,	Lhām lo-a kācha nēi (per- hops kā-chet-ni-ü, I have
225.	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.				gone). Pū chū-nū ka-nak (sic)
226.	In the house is the sad- dle of the white horse.			·	Shē bak kong ānitong shagin mai.
227.	Put the saddle upon his back.		·	····	Shē nū-ung ānitong .
228.	I have beaten his son with many stripes.		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	: <u>:::</u>	Ai cha-ni nānā ka mal
229.	He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.		,	·	Ai ni chak pekā ka keong
230.	He is sitting on a horse under that tree.		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· ·	Ai ni thin chabā shē pūn ngũng.
231.	His brother is taller than his sister.		· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	:	A-be tha ka kling .
232.	The price of that is two rupees and a half.		· ·	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Ai mān lām ni gal khai
2 33.	My father lives in that small house.	ī ·	·	·	På im lēk cha ā mai
234.	Give this rupee to him	·	. •	1 p "	Ne tani ay-ā pēk
235.	Take those rupees from him.				Ai lām ni ai-ta la-wē (i.e.
236.	Beat him well and bind him with ropes.			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Nānā mal yā-yan kūn
237.	Draw water from the well.	·	·····		Wā mata tūi khai
238.	Walk before me .	- 1 - 1 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		· /	Kei mai ma chet-ēi
239.	Whose boy comes be- hind you?				Khe kan u cham (sic)? .
240.	From whom did you buy that?	, ···	*******	·	Ni wan ni u tha ā lē yam ?
241.	From a shopkeeper of the village.				Nhum sai khā lē-ey.

Shö (Honghton).	Shö (Fryer).	Khami (Chittagong Hill Tracts).	Khami (Latter and Campbell).	English.
Naung-me ma sit-ni-ü	Naun-me ma sit-ni-u			215. You went
Na-hyâ sit-ni-ü	Yati hio na sit-ni-u	•••••	·	216. They went.
Sit-e	Sid-e	Tākkū	(Takko)	217. Go.
Sit-tü	Sit-gu	Tākkū wāi	(Takko)	218. Going.
Sit-kü		Tākkū bau	(We-boh)	219. Gone.
		Nung-ē ung-mue āmi-mo?	Nān a-mün (mī-mo)? .	220. What is your name?
		Hinnū chinai mā-yē-rē om-mo?	(Hī kong-o shinnee ma-ye-re omoh?)	221. How old is this horse?
		Hi inna Kashmir prē pa-lo-mo?		222. How far is it from here to Kashmir?
•••••		Nāng po-ē immo kep-po leong mā-yē-rē om-mo?	(Um-po imma chi-po ma-ye- re om-oh ?)	223. How many sons are there in your father's house?
		Wāi-ni kāi kām-lo chwei .	(Wai-nī pul-lo pai kai pu- wai.)	224. I have walked a long way to-day.
•••••	·	Kāi ām-prā chinnū kāi lā .	(Kai mu-prang) chī-po (a- yū la hū-ni-e toi-cho).	225. The son of my uncle is married to his sister.
	 .	Hū-ni immo kung-leong keong-o gin o om.		226. In the house is the saddle of the white horse.
		Hū-ni gin keong-o tlang- tlang-o khāi.		227. Put the saddle upon his back.
		Hū-ni dung-di-o pā-khā-nā- nung.	(Hū-ni-e) chī-po (kai pakkau-nung-nung).	228. I have beaten his son with many stripes.
••••		Hū-ni-o pichha nā ta ta nā .		229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.
	·	Hū-ni ling-keong pakhing-o keong-o tlang-tlang-o	(Hū-ni ung-te kong tlunga hū ding-keng akūya.)	230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.
•••••	•••••	ung-te. Hū-ni tai-cho tleong-o ā- cheang.	······	231. His brother is taller than his sister.
	·····	Hunni-ē vāng tlāp nu-re ba-khai.	(Hū-ni-ē wang tlap nu-rē adulli om.)	232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.
		Kāi ām-pā hu-ni im-cho-o om.		233. My father lives in that small house.
, 		Hunni tānkā who-o (i.e., hū-o) pey.	••••••	234. Give this rupee to him.
		Hu-ni tāu-kā who-o (i.e., hū-o) lo.	·	235. Take those rupees from him.
	:. •···	Hū-ni-u pākhā-bom-bom kābui hoy kom-chūn.		236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.
	~	Kho-ē tūi khā-būi hoy ā-tēo		237. Draw water from the well.
		Kāi-ē mo-o tākko	(Kai-e mo-wa takko) .	238. Walk before me.
		Nung-ē ning-thū-o āmi mo ung-hūi?	****	239. Whose boy comes behind you?
		Āmi khi ommo vān? .		240. From whom did you buy that?
20.00		Avān tākku chai-o vān .		241. From a shopkeeper of the village.

BURMA GROUP.

GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The Linguistic Survey does not extend to Burma or to the languages spoken in that province. A Burmese dialect, known as Maghi, is spoken in Backergunge and Chittagong. It does not, however, differ from the dialect spoken in Arakan, and it has, therefore, been excluded from the Survey as a language foreign to India proper.¹

Mrū, a dialect spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts, in several points agrees with Burmese, and it has therefore been classed as belonging to the Burma group. The materials which are available for this dialect are, however, so unsatisfactory that its classification can only be provisional. It is based on facts which will be mentioned later on.

Most of the dialects belonging to the Burma group are all but unknown, and only the classical language of the Burmese literature, as it is spoken by educated Burmans, has been made available to philologists. What we know about the various forms of speech which must be classed as Burmese dialects, may be summed up in this place as a supplement to the Linguistic Survey.

Burmese is the chief language of Burma. It is bounded towards the south by Mon and Karen; towards the east by Tai languages; towards the north by Shān and Kachin, and towards the west by various Chin dialects.

The written language seems to be the same throughout, but the local pronunciation varies greatly. Our information about these differences is almost entirely limited to the dialect spoken in Arakan.

The Arakanese have branched off from the main Burmese stock at an early date. They are separated from the Burmese proper by a mountainous tract of country and there has been relatively little intercourse between them. The Arakanese dialect has, therefore, had a development of its own, and, in many respects, differs widely from standard Burmese. The pronunciation often agrees with written as against spoken Burmese. In other respects the phonetical changes are different from those occurring in standard Burmese.

The Arakanese are called Maghs² by the natives of India; the Burmans of Pegu call them Rakhaing-tha, i.e., sons of Rakhaing (Arakan).

The Khyaung-thas, i.e., 'the sons of the river', are settled in Akyab and the Arakan Hill Tracts. They are divided into seven classes, and three of these are said to be descended from Talaings. The dialect spoken by the Khyaung-thas is considered to be a form of Arakanese.

The Yabaings, who are settled on both sides of the Pegu Roma, are said to speak Burmese with a strong Arakanese accent.

The inhabitants of Tavoy consider themselves to be descendants of Arakanese colonists. Their language is said to contain many Arakanese provincialisms.

The numbers returned for Maghī in Backergunge and Chittagong are as follows:—

Backergunge
Chittagong
Chittagong Hill Tracts

16,41° 22,500

TOTAL . 44,661

¹ An account of the principal peculiarities of Maghī will be found in the Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft, Vol. lvii, 1903.

A Burmese dialect is spoken in Myelat by the Taungyos, who are settled in Hsa Möng Kham, Maw Nang, and Kyawk Tat.¹

Mrū has provisionally been classed as belonging to the Burma group. It is spoken in the Chittagong Hill Tracts and the Arakan Hills.

The numerals mainly agree with those used in Burmese and the Kuki-Chin languages, and Mrū seems to be most akin to these two groups. The two first numerals, however, lo, one, and $pr\bar{e}$, two, differ from those occurring in all related languages. We may perhaps compare Palaung $l\bar{e}$, one; Xong pra, two.

The numerals in Tibeto-Burman languages are often qualified by means of generic particles. These particles are prefixes in the Kuki-Chin languages, but suffixes in Burmese. Mrū agrees with this latter form of speech. One of the few generic suffixes which occur in the Mrū specimens is, moreover, identical with the corresponding Burmese suffix. $Y\bar{a}$, which is used when the numeral refers to a human being, corresponds to Burmese yauk (Maghī ya), which is used in the same way. Other generic suffixes, which are common to both languages, are perhaps borrowed from Burmese.

The higher numerals are formed in Burmese by prefixing the multiplier to the numeral 'ten', while the multiplier is suffixed in the Kuki-Chin languages. Mrū in this respect agrees with Burmese. Thus, $ng\bar{a}$ -kom, five-tens, fifty.

There are also some points of resemblance between Mrū and Burmese in the formation and inflection of words.

The prefix a which is used in Burmese in order to form nouns and adjectives is used in the same way in Mrū. Thus, \bar{a} - $v\bar{a}th$, a cloth; \bar{a} - $ch\bar{a}$, son; \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, servant; \bar{a} -sing-oi, safe; \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}k$ - $m\bar{a}$, far; \bar{a} - $t\bar{a}$ -mi, elder, etc.

The male suffixes $p\bar{a}$ and $l\bar{a}$ and the female suffix $m\bar{a}$ in Mrū are identical with the corresponding Burmese suffixes pha or pho, la, and ma, respectively. Ma is not used in this way in the Kuki-Chin languages which replace it by the suffix nu.

The suffix ka which is occasionally added in the nominative case in Mrū is probably identical with the Burmese suffix $k\bar{a}$ which is sometimes added to the nominative, especially in adversative clauses. A suffix koi is sometimes added to the accusative in Mrū. In $\bar{a}ng$ -go pai, me-to give, the same suffix occurs in the form go. Compare Burmese ko and go.

The suffix *khai* which is used in the conjugation of the Mrū verb in order to form a kind of past tense is probably related to the Burmese suffix *khè*, etc.

All these points seem to show that there is a certain connection between Burmese and Mrū. The materials at our disposal are, however, so extremely corrupt and untrustworthy that it is impossible to classify Mrū with certainty.

Mrū is by no means merely a Burmese dialect and differs from this latter language in essential points. We sometimes find parallel forms and words in other groups such as the Bodo, the Nāgā, and, more especially, the Kuki-Chin languages. The pronoun $\bar{a}ng$, I, for instance, is found again in the Bodo languages, and en, thou, may be compared with Angāmi na, thou; un, thy, etc. The suffix of the relative participle is mi in Mrū, as in the Lai dialect of Chin, and so on.

The vocabulary is, to a great extent, independent. Many words are found again in the Kuki-Chin languages, especially in Khami. The negative particle doi seems to correspond to Meithei da, etc. But many common words, such as 'belly', 'ear',

¹ The preceding information has been condensed from *The British Burma Gazetteer*. Rangoon, 1880, and from Gazetteer of Upper Burma and the Shan States. By J. George Scott, assisted by J. P. Hardiman. Rangoon, 1900.

'hand', 'mouth', 'horse', 'cow', etc., must be quite differently translated in Mrū and in the Kuki-Chin forms of speech. We sometimes find forms with an old appearance reminding one of Tibetan. Thus, kim, house, Tibetan, khyim; kui, dog, Tibetan khyi, Singphō gui, Burmese khwe. The greatest part of the vocabulary, however, is apparently independent, or corresponding words are found now in one and now in another group of connected languages.

Under such circumstances the classing of Mrū can only be provisional until we get new and better materials. We have found it to agree with Burmese in important points, while also other languages such as Nāgā, Bodo and Kuki-Chin languages some-

times have parallel forms and words.

The Mrū tribe has perhaps branched off from the Burmese branch of the Tibeto-Burman family at a very early date, before the modern groups such as Bodo, Nāgā, Kuki-Chin, etc., had been developed. They were perhaps the forerunners of the great Burmese invasion of Further India. The Arakanese tradition that the Mrūs were settled in Arakan before the Myamma race entered it would agree well with this supposition.

HYBRID BURMESE LANGUAGES.

In Northern and North-Eastern Burma there are a number of tribes whose languages have not yet been thoroughly examined, but all of which appear to be more or less closely connected with Burmese and are probably hybrids. For the sake of completing the survey of the Tibeto-Burman group, I give the following very brief account of these forms of speech, which is entirely based on Messrs. Scott and Hardiman's Gazetteer of Upper Burma.

A .- DANU AND KADU.

The Danus live along the border which separates the Shāns from the Burmans. They form a considerable proportion of the population of the Maymyo sub-division of Mandalay, are numerous in the Ruby mines, in Mong Long, Hsum Hsai, and Western Lawksawk. They are also found in all states in the Myelat, especially in Pangtara, Poila, Yengan, and Maw. They are a hybrid race of Shān and Burmese. Their present speech is a form of Burmese with a great admixture of foreign words. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 562 and ff.

The Danaws are apparently different from the Danus, and are perhaps originally Taungthus (i.e. Karens). They are found in Pangtara, Kyawk Tat, Lai Hsak, and the

surrounding larger states, but are not very numerous.

The Kadus are Burmese and Shān half-breeds with traces of Chin and perhaps Kachin blood. If they had ever a distinct language it is now extinct or has been so much modified by all its neighbours as to be little better than a kind of Yiddish. The Kadus are chiefly found in the Katha district. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 569 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 691 and ff.

B.—HYBRIDS OF KACHIN AND BURMESE.

The following languages appear to be hybrids between Kachin and Burmese. Some of them have been already referred to when dealing with the Kachin group, but as they

are all more closely connected with Burmese they are again mentioned here. It is possible that they are not hybrids, but independent forms of speech.

The Asi or Szi are a half-breed branch of the Lepai Kachins, and their head-quarters are in the hills in the neighbourhood of Mogaung. Their language does not seem to be connected with Kachin, but agrees best with those of the other members of the above group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 377 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 660 and ff.

The Lashis are much mixed up with the Szis and with them are spread all along the frontier of Burma, north, east, and south-east of Bhamo. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 387. They are a hybrid race, see page 382. Vocabulary on page 660.

The Marus, so far as known territory is concerned, frequent the borderland of Burma and China, particularly to the north-east of Talawgyi, south of the main Lashi settlement, and east of Loi Nju. They are however found south and west of this, as far as Katha. They are believed to have come originally from the north. Their language is closely connected with Szi and Lashi. It is nearer Burmese than Kachin. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 382 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 661 and ff. Possibly a hybrid race.

The Hpöns are found so far only in the upper defile of the Irrawaddy between Bhamo and Sinbo and just above it in the Mankin valley to the south-east of Sinbo. They have nothing to do with Shāns, but are much more closely connected with Burmese. 'It is possible that they are a mere sort of dishclout, like the Yaws and Danus and Kadus, full of traces of all their neighbours.' See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 566 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 661 and ff.

The Achangs call themselves and are called by their Chinese neighbours Ngachang or Achang. They appear to be called Parans by the Kachins round about. The name Maingtha is a simple Burmese perversion of the Shān form Tai Möng Hsa, that is to say, Shāns from the two Hsa states, Ho Hsa and La Hsa. The Upper Burma Gazetteer also calls them Tarens or Tarengs. The Kachins regard them as being indirectly connected with them. Their dress, religion, and customs are those of the Chinese Shāns. They are found on the west border of the Chinese state of Santa and in Khāmtī Löng. Their language is a curious mixture. Captain H. R. Davies estimates that about thirty per cent of their vocabulary appears to be connected with Burmese, and twelve per cent with Shān. A reference to the published vocabulary shows a close resemblance between the Achang and Lashi numerals and the one pronoun available for comparison. I therefore include Achang in this group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 390 and ff., 618 and ff. Vocabulary on page 661 and ff.

C .- THE LIHSAW SUB-GROUP.

A group of some six languages, of which Lihsaw is the principal, seems to be connected with Burmese. They all seem to be related to each other. They are the following:—

The Lihsaws are found chiefly in the neighbourhood of Sadon and scattered at high altitudes and always in very small villages throughout the Northern Shan States and

Möng Mīt. The Kachins call them Yawyin and the Chinese Lihsaw. The language has no resemblance to Kachin, but is practically the same as La'hu. It is possible that, like the La'hus, they are a half-breed race. See *Gazetteer of Upper Burma*, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 388 and 587. Vocabulary on pages 661 and 702.

The La'hus are commonly referred to as the Mu Hsö. The Chinese call them Loheirh or Law'he. They are locally called Myen by the Shāns, while the Wa sometimes called them Kwi, which seems to be really the name of a sub-clan. In the Kēngtūng State there are two main divisions who call themselves La'hu-na and La'hu-hsi, and speak different dialects. The principal seat of the La'hus, so far as known, is in the country north of Möng Lem between the Salween and the Mekhong. There are also colonies of them scattered over Kēngtūng and Kēng Cheng. Their language is practically the same as Lihsaw. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 576 and ff. Vocabulary of La'hu on pages 670 and ff. Of La'hu-na on pages 697 and ff., and of La'hu-hsi on pages 699 and ff.

The Akhas or Kaws are probably the most numerous and widely distributed of the hill tribes of Kēngtūng. Their language appears to be connected with La'hu and Lihsaw, but the resemblance is not very close. I have placed them provisionally in this group. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 588 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 692 and ff.

The Akö are probably a half-breed race. They are closely related to the Akha and also dwell in Kengtung. Their language is very similar to Akha, and in the case of the pronouns, closely resembles La'hu. There is no record of the Akha pronouns. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 594. Vocabulary on page 694.

The Li-sus are a transfrontier tribe who live on the upper courses of the Salween and Me-kong. Their language, so far as we can judge from the meagre vocabulary available, is allied to that of La'hu and Lihsaw, and, through them to that of Burmese. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 616. Vocabulary on page 671.

The head-quarters of the Musus or Mossos are at Yetche, near the Me-khong, a little south of Tseku, about the 28th parallel of north latitude. They call themselves Na-chi or Na-chri. They are a transfrontier tribe, and the one meagre vocabulary which we possess points to a close connexion of their language with that of the Li-sus. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, page 616. Vocabulary on page 671.

D.-UNGROUPED LANGUAGES.

The following appear to be Tibeto-Burman, but, with the materials at my command, I am unable to say how they should be grouped.

The Lolos are a transfrontier tribe, whose home is the part of Ssu-ch'uan included in the large bend made by the Yangtzu River in 103° east Longitude. Thence they have spread south into Yünnan and east into Kueichao, and are found in scattered communities as far as Ssumao and the southern frontier. They call themselves Lo-su and Ngo-su, and in some dialects Ne-su. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 613 and ff. On page 670 there is given a vocabulary of the Lolo spoken in Mēng-hwa village. The language is said to resemble Lihsaw, but I do not find this to be borne out by this vocabulary. On page 598 it is stated that some authorities consider that Lolo should be grouped with Burmese.

The Lantens are a Yao tribe found in Kengtung. The few words of Yao which are available give no real clue as to the classification of the race. It may fairly confidently be said that they have no race connection with the Tai, the Wa-Palaung, or the La'hu Lisu stocks. The most probable conjecture is that they are an off-shoot or a half-breed race of the Hmeng or Miao-tzu. See Gazetteer of Upper Burma, Vol. I, Pt. I, pages 604 and ff. Vocabulary on pages 671. Account of the Hmeng or Miao-tzu on pages 597 and ff.

Ming Chi'ang. Vocabulary on pages 670 and ff.

Mahe. Ditto.

Pyin or Pyen. Vocabulary on pages 717 and ff.

MRU.

The Mrūs are settled in the Arakan Hills and in the Chittagong Hill Tracts. Their name is given as Mro by Sir W. Hunter, but his authority was Captain Lewin, who spells the name Mrū. Sir Arthur Phayre says about them:—

'This is a hill tribe now much reduced from its ancient state. They once dwelt on the river Kulādān and its feeders, but have been gradually driven out by the Kamī tribe. They have therefore emigrated to the West, and occupy hills on the border between Arakan and Chittagong. The Rādzaweng, or history of the Arakanese kings, refers to this tribe as already in the country when the Myamma [i.e. Burmese] race entered it. It states also that one of this tribe was chosen king of Arakan about the fourteenth century of the Christian era. The traditions recorded in the same work also imply that the Mrū and Myam-ma races are of the same lineage, though this connection is denied by the Arakanese of the present day, who regard the Mrū tribe as "wild men" living in a degraded state, and consider that it would be disgraceful to associate with them. The number of the Mrū tribe in Arakan amounts to about 2,800 souls. Their language is unwritten. They call themselves $Mr\bar{u}$. Toung $Mr\bar{u}$ [wild Mrū] is a name given to some of their clans by the Arakanese. $Mr\bar{u}$ is also used by the Arakanese as a generic term for all the hill tribes of their country. The word Khyeng is occasionally used in the same sense.'

The number of Mrūs in Arakan, at the census of 1891, was 15,891. In the Chittagong Hill Tracts Mrū was spoken by 100 individuals in the Chakma, and by 2,000 in the Boh Mong Chief's circle. The total number of speakers was therefore:—

Burma											15,891
Boh Mong											2,000
Chakma		•	•	•	•	•	•		•	•	100
								To	TAL		17,991

The fullest account of this tribe is given by Captain Lewin in the work quoted under authorities below. Sir W. Hunter, in his Statistical Account of Bengal, has reprinted this description in a shorter form, and from this latter work the following notes are taken:—

'The Mros are a tribe which formerly dwelt in the Arākān hills; they now live principally to the west of the river Sangu, and along the Mātāmuri river within the Chittagong Hill Tracts. They assert that they were driven from Arākān by the Kumis, and some few years ago a bloody feud existed between them, and affrays often took place. The spread of British influence among these tribes has now put a stop to such encounters. . . . In physique, they are tall powerful men, dark complexioned, with no Mongolian type in their features. They are a peaceable, timid people, and in a dispute among themselves do not fight, but call in an exorcist, who tells them the decision of the spirits in the matter. They have three gods, -viz., Turāi, the Great Father; Sang-Tung, the hill spirit; and Oreng, the deity of the rivers. . . . They have no regular ideas as to a future state. Their ordinary oath is by gun, $d\bar{a}o$, and the tiger. On solemn occasions they swear by one of their gods, to whom at the same time a sacrifice must be offered. The breaking of an oath of this description they believe will be certainly punished by disease, ill-luck, and death. A young man has to serve three years for his wife in his father-in-law's house; or if wealthy, this preliminary can be dispensed with by paying 200 or 300 rupees. The principal marriage ceremony consists of feasting and drinking. Before marriage the sexes have unrestrained intercourse. A child is named the day after its birth. In cases of divorce, the husband is repaid all that he gave for his wife, and she has to leave all her ornaments behind her. A second marriage among women is unusual, but a widow may remarry. On a man dying and leaving a young family, his eldest and nearest adult male relative takes the family and the deceased's wife to live with him. The Mros bury their dead. If a man has sons and daughters, and they marry, he lives with his youngest child, who inherits all property on the death of the father. Two sorts of slavery are recognisedcaptives taken in war, and debtor slaves; but both are treated alike. They fix the site of their villages by the dreaming of dreams. . . . They weave their own clothes from cotton grown by themselves. The men wear only a strip of cloth round the waist which is passed between the legs, and the women nothing beyond a short petticoat. They seem to think that their tribe is dying out. They say that in their fathers' time men used to live to the age of a hundred years, but that now the average duration of life does not extend beyond fifty or sixty years.' 3 р

It should be noted that Mrū is quite different from Mrung, the common name for Tipurā in the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

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Eales, H. L.,—Census of 1891. Burma. Report. Vol. i, Rangoon, 1892. Mention of Mro on pp. 147 and 199.

A translation of the Parable of the Prodigal Son and a List of Standard Words and Phrases have been received from the Chittagong Hill Tracts. They are extremely corrupt and untrustworthy, but they are the only foundation of the notes on Mrū grammar which follow. Sir George Campbell's specimen is so full of misprints that it has been of very little use. The grammatical sketch as well as the specimens printed below must, therefore, be used with great caution.

Pronunciation.—The spelling is very inconsistent, and it is often impossible to decide what the actual pronunciation is. In $ts\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}$, $ts\bar{e}$ - $m\bar{a}$, daughter, \bar{a} seems to be the correct vowel; compare $ch\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{a}$, son. The personal pronoun of the first person singular is written $\bar{a}ng$ in the specimen, and ung in the list. The correct form is probably ang, the same form as in Bodo. A is probably also the sound pronounced in $m\bar{a}$ or mung, to go. Captain Lewin has $kum\bar{a}n$. Ai is apparently written for e in prai- $y\bar{a}h$, two, in the specimen. The list and other vocabularies give pre. E is probably also the actual sound in pai and pe, to give, and perhaps in oai, woi, wey, or $w\bar{a}$, to be. Campbell has wey. The same verb perhaps also occurs in kom hu-hu owoi, bread enough to spare. The postposition 'to', 'from', is written koi, koy- \bar{e} , $k\bar{a}eh$, koyey, keey, and khoi. Campbell has keux, which is certainly a misprint. E is probably written for i in $m\bar{e}a$, what? the form mya occurring in most places. The negative particle is written doi, dui, and de. Captain Lewin has doi; $d\bar{o}$ or $d\bar{u}$ is probably the correct form.

A euphonic y occurs in forms such as $pre-y\bar{a}$ or $prai-y\bar{a}h$ besides $pre-\bar{a}$, two. In $loi-y\bar{a}$, one, iy is apparently written for y.

The difference between hard and soft consonants seems to be small. Thus, we find goi and koi, in, to; $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ and $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$, all, together; klenge and klengke, than; $t\bar{e}b$ - \bar{a} and $t\bar{e}p$ - \bar{a} , strike, etc.

Aspirates are interchanged with unaspirated consonants; thus, *khoi* and *koi*, to; *khyan-kyan*, much; *khong-kong*, good; *phai-mi* and *pai-mi*, he, etc. *Khong-kong*, good, is probably the Burmese word *kong*, the common word for 'good' in Mrū being *yūng*.

Final consonants are often silent. Thus we find $b\tilde{a}$ and $b\tilde{a}k$, a plural suffix; loke, $loke-y\tilde{a}$, $lok-y\tilde{a}$, and $lo-y\tilde{a}$, one; $lah-m\tilde{a}$ and $\tilde{a}-l\tilde{a}k-m\tilde{a}$, far; $p\tilde{a}k$ and $p\tilde{a}$, pig; tud-a and tu-a, to, etc. The h which is often added after a final vowel is perhaps only a tone indicator. Thus, $loi-y\tilde{a}$ and loi-yah, one.

Ch is probably pronounced ts, for we find $ts\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, daughter; $ts\bar{a}$, child; $ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, $ts\bar{a}$ and $ch\bar{a}$, male child, son. Compare Burmese $th\bar{a}$, Arakanese $ts\bar{a}$, child. $Ts\bar{a}$ seems also to mean 'small.' It is written ja in No. 233. Chh probably represents s; thus, ung $t\bar{a}r\bar{a}ng$ $ts\bar{a}$ mattwama-koy- \bar{e} chhyong- $t\bar{a}$ -khai, my uncle's son his-daughter-with joined-is. Chhyong seems to be identical with $sy\bar{a}ng$ in $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$, join.

M is interchanged with ng in $k\bar{u}m$ or kung, back. Gn is often written for ng; thus, agna, a servant; gnom and $ng\bar{o}m$, be, etc. Final ng seems to be very faintly sounded. Thus Hodgson gives loung, one, where the specimens have lo, loh, or lok; we find rung and run, buy; u and $y\bar{u}ng$, good, etc. We often find o or ow instead of w; thus, wang, oang, and owan, to go to; woi, oai, and owoi, to be, etc.

Articles.—The numeral loh or $lo-y\bar{a}$ may be used as an Indefinite article, while definiteness is expressed by means of demonstrative pronouns or relative clauses.

Nouns.—The prefix \bar{a} is often used before nouns, especially before such as denote relationship; thus, $\bar{a}ng$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$, my father. It seems to be used, like the corresponding prefix in Burmese, in order to form nouns from verbs. Thus, \bar{a} - $ng\bar{a}$, servant; a- $m\bar{a}th\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{a}la$, harlots; \bar{a} - $w\bar{a}th$, cloth (Burmese awat, from wat, to put on).

Gender.—Gender is only apparent in the case of animate beings. It is sometimes, in the case of human beings, distinguished by using different words; thus, $p\bar{a}$, father; \bar{u} , mother: $nao-m\bar{a}$, (younger) brother; $twa-m\bar{a}$, sister. The male suffix, in the case of human beings, is $p\bar{a}$, and the female $m\bar{a}$; thus, $ch\bar{a}-p\bar{a}$, son; $ts\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, daughter. The gender of animals is distinguished by means of the suffixes $l\bar{a}$, male, and $m\bar{a}$, female; thus, $ts\bar{a}-l\bar{a}$, a bull; $ts\bar{a}-m\bar{a}$, a cow: $roa-l\bar{a}$, a he goat; $roa-m\bar{a}$, a she goat.

Number.—There seem to be two numbers, the singular and the plural. When it is necessary to distinguish the plural, some word meaning 'multitude', 'all,' etc., is added. Thus, $p\bar{a}$ $b\acute{a}$ - $b\acute{a}$, fathers; $y\bar{u}ng$ -mi bai-bai, good men; machhiwa $y\bar{u}ng$ $b\acute{a}k$ - $b\acute{a}$, good women. Bai, and perhaps also $b\acute{a}k$ or $b\acute{a}$, seems to be identical with boi in koak-ta-boi, spent-everything. The word $m\bar{a}t\bar{e}n$ in $m\bar{a}$ -mi $t\bar{a}nk\bar{a}$ $m\bar{a}t\bar{e}n$, those rupees, is perhaps also a plural suffix.

Case.—The Nominative and the Accusative do not generally take any suffix. In $pai-mi-k\bar{a}$ kom-lai, he was in want, we apparently have a nominative suffix $k\bar{a}$. The same suffix occurs in Burmese, especially in adversative clauses.

It is not certain whether there occurs any proper suffix of the agent. In ung nā tēbā, I strike; en nea tēp, thou strikest; ung na yā tep, I may strike, nā and nea are perhaps such suffixes. But nā also occurs after the subject of an intransitive verb; thus, ung nā mung, I go. In āng-ing ā-kā-mi wān, I getting property, my share, ing is perhaps the suffix of the agent.

The suffix $k\bar{a}eh$, koi, keey, ka, or go is sometimes added to the object; thus, \bar{a} - $ch\bar{a}$ - $ko\bar{i}$ \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ khiah, the son the father (subject) saw; $\bar{a}ng$ -go pai, me-to give, etc. Compare the corresponding suffix ko in Burmese.

The Genitive is denoted by putting the governed before the governing noun; thus, in $p\bar{a}$ kim keey, thy father's house in. The suffix $k\bar{a}eh$ may be added; thus, $pai-mi-k\bar{a}eh$ $p\bar{a}ng-koth$, his neck. In rangk \bar{a} korng \bar{a} un-ning \bar{a} -munkhat-ko, this horse's years howmany, un is inserted between the two nouns. Compare Khami ung and in, Burmese in, i. The Vocative may be formed by suffixing o; thus, \bar{a} - $p\bar{a}$ -o, O father. Other relations are indicated by means of postpositions. Such are:—eh, in, at; hai, with; koi, in, to; kung-eh, at the back of, behind; $tad\bar{e}$ or tuda, to, from, etc.

Adjectives.—Adjectives sometimes follow, and sometimes precede, the noun they qualify; thus $mr\bar{u}$ yūng-mi pre-ā, men good two; yūng-mi $mr\bar{u}$ bai bai lai, of good men, lit. good man all word, the word of good men. Mi in yūng-mi is probably the suffix of the relative participle. Mā seems to be another form of the same; thus, ā-lāk-mā pren, far-being country, but Kashmir pren mun-khat lā, Kashmir country how far? The particles of comparison are lāey and klēng-ē; thus pai-mi lā-ey u, him than good, better; na-mi klengke tsyong, that than high; pai-mi twā-mā la-ey mā-mi syong-khai, his sister than he high is. Khai in syong-khai is an intensifying verbal suffix.

Numbers.—The numerals are given in the list of words. They sometimes follow, and sometimes precede, the noun they qualify; thus, mru loi-ya and loi-ya mru, one man. The list of words has loke, one. The final e is also written eya, yā, yah, and ya, and the k preceding it is generally dropped. It is therefore probably silent. Thus, mruloi-yā chā-pā prai-yāh oai, man one-of sons two were. $Y\bar{a}$ or \bar{a} and $y\bar{a}h$ are regularly added to a numeral when the qualified noun denotes persons. It is dropped when animals are spoken of; thus, kūi loh, dog one, a dog. Yā is therefore probably a generic suffix. The generic particles are therefore probably suffixes, and not prefixes, just as in Burmese where they are suffixed when the numeral is less than ten. Yā corresponds to Burmese yauk, Maghī ya, a generic particle used to denote rational beings. The generic suffix used with reference to money seems to be lap; thus, mā-mi chhūng prē-lāp kon khwai, this-of price two-rupees and a-half. The generic particles are apparently also used alone, as a kind of indefinite article; thus, ā-tong ā-wāth, a cloth; fā-nai a-tong, shoes; roā apum, a kid. A-tong corresponds to the Burmese generic particle a-thin, (written a-than), a piece of cloth. No generic particle is used in cases like roa lā loh, a he goat; ruthbuth-lo, a ring, etc.

Pronouns.—The following are the Personal pronouns:—

. pai-mi, he.
pai-mi, his.
ne.
pai-mi, ka-buāh, they.

Several other forms occur; many of them, however, are only different spellings of the above. Instead of angeng, we, we also find a-ing and anging. The latter form may be a miswriting, but it may also be compared with Bârâ zang; Lālung, jing-rau, we. The list interchanges the second and third persons plural in two places. It also has the form or-mi, they. This word means 'him' in the specimen.

Demonstrative pronouns.—Pai, pai-yā, and pai-mi, that; $m\bar{a}$ -mi, that. A pronoun $rang-k\bar{a}$, this, seems to occur in No. 221, $rang-k\bar{a}$ korngā, this horse. The Demonstrative pronouns are generally used as personal pronouns of the third person. The suffix mi seems to be that of the relative participle; thus, na-mi tong-chang, this what? lit. apparently 'being-what?' Na-mi seems to be derived from the verb $n\bar{a}$, Burmese $n\bar{e}$, to be. The suffix mi is dropped when the pronoun is used as a prefix; thus, mattwama, that is $m\bar{a}$ -twa- $m\bar{a}$, his daughter.

There are no *Relative pronouns*. A relative participle seems to be formed by adding the suffix mi; thus, $\bar{a}ng$ -ing \bar{a} - $k\bar{a}$ -mi $w\bar{a}n$, me-by to-be-got property, the property which I shall get. The same form seems to occur in passages such as:— $ch\bar{a}$ \bar{a} -so-mi, son young-being, the younger son; $p\bar{a}k$ - $ch\bar{a}$ -mi, pigs-eaten-what, pigs' food, husks; to- $r\bar{a}$ -mi won, all that I have, etc. The suffix is sometimes $m\bar{a}$, and not mi; thus, \bar{a} - $l\bar{a}k$ - $m\bar{a}$ pren, a far country; kim-koi $w\bar{a}ng$ - $m\bar{a}$ -kha, house-to coming-time-at, when he came near to the house; compare Shö $kho\bar{a}$, time-at, when.

Interrogative pronouns.—Mēa, or myā, who? tong, what? tong-phā, why? munya and ā-munkhat, how many? mun-khat, how much?

An *Indefinite pronoun* seems to be formed by adding the suffix po to the first numeral; thus, *loiyā-po payā-hom-doi pai-mi*, any body gave-food-not to him.

Verbs.—There are no pronominal prefixes used in order to denote the person and number of the subject. In *en kung-ke-ey \bar{a}-my\bar{a} ts\bar{a}-chha \bar{a}-mung, thy back-at whose boy goes? we have perhaps a pronominal prefix of the third person in the \bar{a} of \bar{a}-mung.*

The root alone, without any suffix, is generally used in order to denote the present and past times; thus, ung nā, I am; pai-mi wai, he was. Several suffixes may be added, but I am unable to give the exact meaning of them. A suffix ā occurs in forms such as:—ung nā tēb-ā, I strike; chin-āh, gathered; deb-a, entreated, etc. Another suffix is kho; thus, en mung-khoh, thou goest; konggnānecho-kho, I am dying; ung mung-khoh, I went; chintatūng-kho, sent. The suffix khai generally seems to convey the idea of past time; thus, kong-khai, was dead; kā-khai, has been found; oang-kla-khai, fell-on (his neck); koi-khai, went, etc. But it is also used to denote the present time; thus, pai-mi mung-khai, he goes. Compare the verbal suffix kha in Maghī. The suffix ta or tā is used in a similar way; thus, lun-ta, asked; koak-ta-boi, wasted all; pa-rum-tā, heard. It is sometimes followed by khai; thus, pai-mi tēp-tā-khai, he strikes; ung tēp-tā-khai, I have struck; chyong-tā-khai, he has married, etc.

The suffix khai, combined with a prefix khām, also occurs in ung khām tēp-khai, I am striking. Ung-aey tēp-ung occurs as the corresponding imperfect; I was striking.

The root alone is apparently also used as a Future. Thus, $\bar{a}ng$ koi-pun \bar{a} -p \bar{a} tua $\bar{a}ng$ -koi, $\bar{a}ng$ taipay, I will arise, my-father to I-will-go, I will say. The form taipay perhaps contains a suffix ay. The suffix \bar{a} is used to form the future in ung-t $\bar{e}b$ - \bar{a} , I shall strike. I cannot analyse the form ung-n \bar{e} -chyan, I shall be. Chyan seems to be identical with keom, to sit, for which Campbell gives chum. The same word apparently also occurs in ung-y \bar{a} keon-khai, I may be; kushi-chang-kom, in order to be merry, etc.

The root alone is also used as an *Imperative*. Thus, mung, go; $ch\bar{a}$, eat; $n\bar{a}$, be; pai, give. Sometimes a suffix \bar{a} is added; thus, $t\bar{e}b$ - \bar{a} , strike; tan- \bar{a} , put, etc. This form seems to be identical with the infinitive. In the first person plural we find a suffix so, apparently corresponding to Burmese tso, in khushe-so, let us be merry. Other

forms for the same are *chu āng-jing chā-hom-chi*, let us eat; *ang-eng gā-sāng tai-owoi khushī-oi*, we all should make rejoicing. These forms are not clear to me.

The root alone is also used as an Infinitive or Verbal noun; thus, pai-mi mu du-chākowoi, he his-belly to-fill wished. The literal translation of du-chākowoi seems to be 'full-eating-was.' In kohi-khoi kung-koi, after having spent, lit., spending back-on, this verbal noun is used as a genitive. The suffix ā is added in tēp-ā, to strike. The suffix of the infinitive of purpose seems to be thing; thus, pai-mi prangā-eh koi-thing pā chin-tatūng-kho, he fields-into (lit. outside) to-feed pigs sent (him). The suffix kom seems to be used in the same way; thus, āng āng khān-pon tuda khushi-chang-kom, I my friends with merry-being-for; āng en chā aplet-kom nā-doi, I am not worthy to be thy son. Aplet-kom seems to be an infinitive of purpose; nā-doi means 'is not,' or 'am not.' Compare the use of kom in pai-mi kom, him for. The same suffix seems to occur in toi-cha-gom, to eat.

Participles.—The suffixes mi and $m\bar{a}$ used in forming the Relative participle have been mentioned with relative pronouns. The suffix mi is also used to form a Noun of agency; thus, roa-thing-mi, a shepherd, lit. goat-tender. An Adverbial participle seems to be formed by prefixing \bar{a} and suffixing oi; thus, \bar{a} -sing-oi, safe. The form mung-krāng, going, is perhaps also an adverbial participle. The various tenses are used instead of the Conjunctive participle. There is apparently no form in the specimen which can be called a real participle of this kind. And the list gives keon-khai, having been; $t\bar{e}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -khai-khoh, having struck; and mung-tink-khoh, gone, with the same suffixes as are used after the finite tenses. Forms such as chin-āh, gathering, are formed by adding a postposition \bar{a} to the verbal noun.

Passive.—The list of words presents the following forms:—ung ke tep-ung, I am struck; ung kham tep-khai, I was struck; ung kham tep chātai, I shall be struck. The verb kham seems to be identical with Burmese khan, to suffer. A similar verb is suffixed in Khami and Shö. Ung ke is perhaps the object, 'me', and ung ke tep-ung perhaps means 'me striking.' In the specimen we find kā-khai, was found again, in form identical with the active.

Compound verbs are extensively used, but I am unable to analyse most of them. The following prefixes occur:— $g\bar{a}$ and $k\bar{a}$; koi; pa; po; tai; toi; wang; and $y\bar{a}$. Thus, $g\bar{a}$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ and $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$, to join, be together, perhaps from chang, to be: koi-pun, to arise; pa-rum, to hear; (owan)-po- $l\bar{a}$, to bring; tai-pa, to speak, to say; toi-chang, to serve; toi- $ch\bar{a}$, to eat: wang-ting, to come back; oang-kla, to fall; owan-po- $l\bar{a}$, to bring. The suffix wang, oang, or owan, is perhaps identical with the verb wang, to come. $Y\bar{a}$ is prefixed in forms such as ung $y\bar{a}$ -keong-khai, I may be; ung-na $y\bar{a}$ -tep, I may strike. It seems as if the modifying word is generally prefixed. Sometimes, however, it is also suffixed. Thus, um $t\bar{e}pt\bar{a}$ khyan-kyan, i.e., ung $t\bar{e}p$ - $t\bar{a}$ -khyan-khyan, I have-struck-much; koak- $t\bar{a}$ -boi, (he) wasted-all; $pay\bar{a}$ -hom-doi, gave-food-not; chu $\bar{a}ng$ -jing $ch\bar{a}$ -hom-chi, let us eat-food. It will be seen that the suffixes are generally inserted between the principal verb and the modifying addition. Such combinations are, therefore, no real compounds. But in toi-chang-lo, I served, we have perhaps a real compound with the latter component modifying the former. The word woi in en $\bar{a}ng$ hai $k\bar{a}$ - $sy\bar{a}ng$ -woi, thou me with art-always-together, is perhaps the verb substantive.

The Negative particle is doi; thus, chāk oai-doi, food was not.

An Interrogative particle is perhaps ko in rang-kā korngā un-ning āmun-khat ko, this horse's years how many?

Order of words.—I have been unable to find any rule for the order of words. Every possible combination occurs.

I have printed the specimen and the list of words with only a few corrections. In the specimen I have hyphened out the different words and syllables, and corrected the translation in a few places. The specimens write sometimes ai and sometimes ai. I have given ai throughout.

[No. 39.]

TIBETO-BURMAN FAMILY.

BURMA GROUP.

MRU.

(CHITTAGONG HILL TRACTS.)

Mru loi-yā chā-pā prai-yāh oai. Chā ā-so-mi ā-pā koi tai-pa, 'Ānging Man one-of Son younger the-father to sons tioo were. ā-kā-mi wān āng-go pai.' Pai-mi rathyāh wān pay-ā. Hang-kakra-ah sharegoodsme-to give.' He divided goodsNot-long-after gave. chin-āh, pai-mi ā-lāk-mā chā ā-so-mi plan pren koi-khai. Pai-khoi younger again gathering, hefar country There went. pai-mi sun-thāka wān. Khoi-khoi kung-koi pai-mi pren-koi mrn chāk he wasted goods. Spent after thatcountry-in food men oai-doy: pai-mi-kā kom-lai. Pai-mi pren-koi loi-yah mru was-not; he was-in-want. He country-in oneman kā-syāng. Pai-mi prangā-eh koi-thing chin-ta-tung-kho рā pai-mi-kāeh. joined. Hefield-into to-feed pigssenthim. Pāk-chā-mi pai-mi toi-cha-gom pai-mi mu du-chākowoi. Loi-yā-po payā Husks he eat-to his bellyto-fill-wished. Anybody Kung-āhā pai-mi tai-pa, 'Āng ā-pā buth-buth-meong a-gna hom-doi pai-mi. food-not him. Afterwards. said, 'My father's hehow-many (i.e. a-nga) kom huhu owoi, ang chak-rai kong-gnanecho-kho. Ang koi-pun vants breadenough is, I hunger perish. Iwill-rise ā-pā tua āng-koi; āng tai-pay, "Ā-pā-o, āng gnara koāng koi, āng will-go; I will-say, "Father-O, I sinned heaven the-father to 1 aplet-kom nā-doi, āng tua en agna."' Kung-eh pai-mi thy son to-be-called (?) am-not, me make thy servant." Afterwards he the-father tuda koi-khai. Ā-lāk-mā-koi-khā-oh ā-chā-koi ā-pā khiah, hāno. Far-way-off-when the-son the-father saw, had-compassion, pai-mi poth-khai pai-mi-kaeh pāng-koth oang-kla-khai pai-mi-kāeh sora-nām-ā. he ranhisneck fell him kissed. The-son tai-pā, 'Ā-рā-о, āng gnara koang koi, en-tuda: āng en the-father-to said, 'Father-O, \boldsymbol{I} sinnedheaven to, thee-before: aplet-kom nā-doi.' Ā-pā agna koi tai-pa, 'Owan-po-lā ā-tong ā-wāth son to-be-called (?) am-not.' The-father servants to said, ' Bring dress haya-kupa, pai-mi-koi kroa pe ruth-buth lo, khopa fā-nai ā-tong pa. put-on-him. his finger put ring feet shoesa-pair give.

Chu-āng-jing-chā-hom-chi, khushe-so, tompokā āng chā kong-khai plan sing-khai, Let-us-eat, merry-let-us-be, for my son dead-was again alive-came, pai-mi tāmā-khai plan kā-khai.' Kabuāh khusi-khok. he lost-was again found-was.' They merry-began.

Āko ā-chā ā-tā-mi tai-koi wā-khai. Kim-koi wāng-mā-kha taiplai House-to came-when dancing-and-music Now his-son elder field-in was. pai-mi pa-rum-tā. Pai-mi āgnā loi-ya lun-ta, 'Na-mi tong chāng?' Pai-mi tai-pa, He servant one asked, 'This what is?' Hesaid, heard. wang-ting-kho, pai-mi wang-ting a-sing-oi; en pay-ā ā-pā · En nau-ma father 'Thy younger-brother came-arrived, returned safe; he ā-pā kraāh-kaah poi.' Pai-mi kon-mrāo-khai; kim-la-koi-nāo-kup-dui. Niongka angry-was; house-inside-enter-would-not. Therefore the-father tai-pa, ang meong-khoth-khok-ning poth-khai, pai-mi-ka deb-a. Pai-mi ā-pā-koi many-so-years \boldsymbol{I} entreated. He his-father-to said, himang-koi roā apum kowa-doi; dith-cha-po en toi-chang-lo, en $_{\mathrm{lai}}$ āng transgressed-not; me-to goat one thy word at-any-time I thee serve. $\mathbf{E}\mathbf{n}$ chā khushi-chang-kom. khān-pon tuda āng āng en peah-doi, Thy80% with merry-being-jor. \boldsymbol{I} friends thou gavest-not, mypoi pai-mipeah en āmāth-āmāla hai koak-ta-boi, kim-koi wang, himhouse-to came, thou gavest feastharlots with spent-all, Pai-mi or-mi koi tai-pa, 'Ā-chā, en āng hai kā-syāng-woi, to-rā-mi kom.' 'Son, thou me with together-art, whatever property for. him to said, en-kam gnom. Ang-eng gā-sāng taiowoi-khushī-oi, tompoka en thy younger-brother allshould-make-merry, for kā-khai.' kong-khai aplan sing-khai, pai-mi tāmā-khai, āplān dead-was again alive-came, found-was.' he lost-was, again

STANDARD WORDS AND SENTENCES.

En	glish.		Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).		
1. One .				Loke.	
2. Two .				Prē.	
3. Three				Tsūm.	
4. Four .				Tē-li.	
5. Five .				Tā-ngā.	
6. Six .				To-rūk.	
7. Seven	•			Ra-nit.	
8. Eight		٠		Reat.	
9. Nine .	•			Tāk-kū.	
10. Ten .		٠		Ha-mūit.	
11. Twenty				Pir-mi.	
12. Fifty.				Ngā-kom.	
13. Hundred			٠,	Ā-kom.	
14. I .	•			Ung.	
15. Of me	•			Ung lai.	
16. Mine .	•	,		Ung.	
17. We .	•			Ung-ing.	
18. Of us.				Ung-ing lai.	
19. Our .		•		Ung-ing koy-a.	
20. Thou .	•		٠	En.	
21. Of thee				En lai.	
22. Thine.				En.	
23. You .	•	•		En-ni.	
24. Of you				En-ni lai.	

Eng	lish.	4		Mrū (Chittsgong Hill Tracts).
25. Your .				En-ni.
26. He .				Phai-mi.
27. Of him				Phai-mi lai.
28. His .				Phai-mi.
29. They .				Or-mi.
30. Of them			-	Or-mi lai.
31. Their				Phai-mi kē-a
32. Hand				Bong.
33. Foot.	·			Klong.
34. Nose .		•.		Nå-kong.
35. Eye .		e ,•		Mik.
36. Mouth				Nor.
37. Tooth				Yeing.
38. Ear .		. '		Phā-rām.
39. Hair .				Tsām.
40. Head .				Lā.
41. Tongue		٠		Dai.
42. Belly .				Mū.
43. Back				Kūm.
44. Iron .	•			Longhā.
45. Gold .				Kū.
46. Silver	٠			Tai.
47. Father		•		Pā.
48. Mother	٠.			ΰ.
49. Brother		•	•.	Não-mã (i.e., nau-mã).
50. Sister		•	:	Toa-mā.
51. Man .				Morū (i.e., mrū).

English.	Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
52. Woman	Michiwā.
53. Wife	Machhi.
54. Child	Tsā.
55. Son	Kechak tsā.
56. Daughter]	Tsē-mā (i.e., tsā-mā).
57. Slave	Nār.
58. Cultivator	Ton-lai.
59. Shepherd	Roa-thing-mi.
60. God	Thaurai.
61. Devil	Āthowa.
62. Sun	Tsāt.
63. Moon	Lā-mā.
64. Star	Kē-re.
65. Fire	Mai,
66. Water	Tāi.
67. House	Kim.
68. Horse	Korngā.
69. Cow	Tsiā.
70. Dog	. Kūi.
71. Cat	. Min.
72. Cock	. Wā-klung.
73. Duck	Kūmpai.
74. Ass	
75. Camel	
76. Bird	. Wā.
77. Go	Mung.
78. Eat	, Chā.
	1

Eng	glish.			Mru (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
79. Sit .				Keom.
80. Come				Wang.
81. Beat				Tēp-a.
82. Stand				Yong.
83. Die .				Kong.
84. Give				Pē.
85. Run.				Le-mo-poi.
86. Up .				Keong-mā.
87. Near				Ton-chē.
88. Down				Nem-chē.
89. Far .				Lah-mā.
90. Before				Rhi-mi.
91. Behind				Kung-ge.
92. Who		•		Mēa.
93. What		•		Tong.
94. Why			•	Tong-phā.
95. And				Ādong-ey.
96. But .				Na-mi-ta-ey ung-koi.
97. If .				Won-kē-ēy.
98. Yes .				Nā.
99. No .				Nā-doi.
100. Alas.	:			Ū.
101. A father				Pā lo-yā.
102. Of a father	r			Pā lo-yā lai.
103. To a father	r			Pā lo-yā tadē.
104. From a fat	her			Pā lo-yā tadē.
105. Two father	s			Pā pre-yā.

English.		Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
106. Fathers		Pā bâ-bâ.
107. Of fathers		Pā bâ-bâ lai.
108. To fathers		Pā bâ-bâ tadē.
109. From fathers .		Pā bâ-bâ ke-ey.
110. A daughter .		Tsā-mā lok-yā.
111. Of a daughter .		Tsā-mā lok-yā lai
112. To a daughter .		Tsā-mā lok-yā tadē.
113. From a daughter		Ditto.
114. Two daughters		Pre-yā tsā-mā.
115. Daughters .		Bai-bai tsā-mā.
116. Of daughters .		Bai-bai tsā-mā lai.
117. To daughters .		
118. From daughters		Tsā-mā bai-bai ke-ey.
119. A good man .		Loke-yā mrū khong-kong-ya
120. Of a good man .	•	Loke-yā mrū yūng-mi lai.
121. To a good man .		Mrū yūng-mi tadē.
122. From a good man		Loke-yā mrū yūng-mi tadē.
123. Two good men .		Mrŭ yūng-mi pre-ā.
124. Good men.		Yūng-mi bai-bai.
125. Of good men .		Yūng-mi mrū bai-bai lai.
126. To good men .		Yūng-mi mrū bai-bai tadē.
127. From good men		Yūng-mi mrū bai-bai kē-ey
128. A good woman .		Loke-yā machhiwa tlang-u- mā.
129. A bad boy .		Loke-yā tsā yūng-dē.
130. Good women .		Machhiwa yūng bâk-bâ.
131. A bad girl .		Machhiwa yūng-dē.
132. Good		Yāng.

English.		Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
133. Better .		Pai-mi lā-ey u.
134. Best .		Ne klēng-ē u.
135. High .		Tsyong-mā.
136. Higher .		Na-mi klēng-kē tsyong.
137. Highest	·	· Ditto.
138. A horse .		Korngā loh.
139. A mare .		Korngā mā loh.
140. Horses .		Korngā bai-bai.
141. Mares .		Kornga mā bai-bai.
142. A bull .		Tsiā lā loh.
143. A cow .		Tsiā mā loh.
144. Bulls .		Tsiā lā bai-bai.
145. Cows .		Tsiā mā bai-bai.
146. A dog .		Kūi loh.
147. A bitch .		Kūi mā loh.
148. Dogs .		Kūi bai-bai.
149. Bitches .	٠.	Kūi mā bai-bai.
150. A he goat	··· .	Roa lā loh.
151, A female goat		Roa mā loh.
152. Goats .		Roa bai-bai.
153. A male deer		Ngā-hue lā.
154. A female deer		Ngā-hue mā.
155. Deer .		Ngā-hue bai-bai.
156. I am		Ung nā.
157. Thou art .		En nā.
158. He is .		Pai-mi nā.
159. We are .		Ung-ing nā.

English.		3	Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
160. You are .			Kobūa nā.¹
161. They are .			En-ni nā.
162. I was .			Ung wai.
163. Thou wast.		٠.	En wai.
164. He was .			Pai-mi wai.
165. We were .			Ung-ing wai.
166. You were .			En-ni wai.
167. They were	•		Pai-mi wai.
168. Be		٠.	Nā.
169. To be .			En-nā.
170. Being .			
171. Having been			
172. I may be .			Ung yā keon-khai.
173. I shall be .			Ung nē-chyan.
174. I should be			
175. Beat	•	٠,	Tēp.
176. To beat .			Tēp-ā.
177. Beating .			Tēp-mi.
178. Having beaten			Tēp-tā-khai-khoh.
179. I beat .			Ung nā tēb-ā.
180. Thou beatest	•		En nea tēp.
181. He beats .			Pai-mi tēp-tā-khai.
182. We beat .			Ā-ing tēb-ā.
183. You beat .	•	٠.	Kobua tēp-tā-khai.²
184. They beat .			En-ni tēp-tā-khai.
191. I am beating			Ung khām-tēp-khai.
192. I was beating			Ung-a-ey tēp-ung.
1 Nos 160 and 161 as			

Nos. 160 and 161 are interchanged.
 Nos. 183 and 184 are interchanged. Nos. 185-190 were not given in the list.

	English.	Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
193.	I had beaten	•••••
194.	I may beat	Ung nā yā tép.
195.	I shall beat ¹	Ung tēb-ā.
201.	I should beat	Ditto.
202.	I am beaten ·	Ung ke tēp-ung
203.	I was beaten	Ung kham tēp-khai.
204.	I shall be beaten .	Ung kham tēp chātai
205.	I go	Ung nã mung.
206. 7	Thou goest	En mung-khoh
207. 1	He goes ²	Pai-mi mung-khai.
211. 1	went	Ung mung khoh.
212. 1	Thou wentest	En pā-mung-kliob,
213. I	He went ³	Pai-mi mung-kbob.
217. (3o	Mung.
218. (Boing	Mung krang.
219. (Rone	Mung tink khoh.
220. 1	What is your name?	En ming myā?
221. I	How old is this horse?	Rangkā korngā un-ning ā- mun-khat ko?
222. I	Iow far is it from here to Kashmir?	Kashmir prēn mun-khat lā ?
	How many sons are there in your father's house?	In på kim kë-ey tså mun-ya woi?
224. I	have walked a long way to-day.	Unni ung ā-lāh-mā koy-ē nā chām poa ngom
225. 7	The son of my uncle is married to his sister.	Ung tārāng tsā mattwa-ma koy-ē chhyong-tā-khai.
2 2 6. I	n the house is the sad- dle of the white horre.	Pai-mi khim ke-ey korngā koh gingwan komā mi hai korngā kum chym-ra kom
227.]	Put the saddle upon his back.	i wey (sic). Pai-mi ging korngā kūm-lū koy-ē tan-ā.

¹ Nos. 196-200 were wanting in the list.
² Nos. 208-210 " "

Nos. 214-216 " "

English.	Mrū (Chittagong Hill Tracts).
229. He is grazing cattle on the top of the hill.	Ormi hung kai khyngmi ke- ey koy pē-a āchyk.
230. He is sitting on a horse under that tree.	Sing-dow ey ka korngā kūm-lū ke-ey son.
231. His brother is taller than his sister.	Pai-mi twā-mā la-ey mā-mi syong-khai.
232. The price of that is two rupees and a half.	Mā-mi chhũng prē-lāp hon khwai.
233. My father lives in that small house.	Ā-pā pai-yā khim ja koy-ey woi.
234. Give this rupee to him	Mā-mi tānkā pai-mi ke-ey pai-ya.
235. Take those rupees from him.	Mā-mi tānkā mātēn pai-mi tūde kāppa.
236. Beat him well and bind him with ropes.	Mā-mi ke-ey teb-ā khyan- khyan hānā kāppa pē lē tom-mā.
237. Draw water from the well.	Kwālā ke-ey koi kung tūi.
238. Walk before me .	Ung pūr-ke-ey mā.
239. Whose boy comes be- bind you?	En kung-ke-ey ā-myā tsā- chha ā-mung?
240. From whom did you buy that?	Myā-goi en run ?
2 ii. From a shopkeeper of the village.	Koa cheng koy-ey ung rung.
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